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INDEX TO THE FORTY-FOURTH VOLUME OF THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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Attention is called to the following headings in this Index, under which are grouped related articles, some of which might otherwise be searched for under other titles: Africa, Aviation, Canada (including Reciprocity), China, Congress, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Politics, Russia, Trusts, Turkey.

Pp. 1-128, July; pp. 129-256, August; pp. 257-384, September; pp. 385-512, October; pp. 513-640, November; pp. 641-76,8 December.

- ABBEY, Edwin Austin, illustrator, 300.
- Adachi Kinnosuke. Admiral Togo, type of Samurai, 169; Anglo-American arbitration and the Far East, 602; The Chinese revolt: a survey, 717; The Japanese navy since the war with Russia, 85.
- Aeronautics: See under Aviation.
- Aeroplane, The—A year's marvellous progress, 174.
- Africa;
French, Dismemberment of, 731.
Frenchman and German in, 305.
Railroads proposed, 669, 730.
Sierra Leone, and its future, 617.
West, French railway development in, 730.
- Agriculture:
Crop prospects, 10, 145, 267-268, 402.
Dry-farming congress, sixth international, 396.
Farm values in the United States, 268.
Harvests of the world, 268.
- Alaska:
Administration policy as to Controller Bay, 270.
Canceling of Cunningham claims, 148.
- Albania's revolt and Russia, 118.
- Amazons, The, 246.
- America improving—an Englishman's viewpoint, 217.
- American Tobacco Company, decision by Supreme Court, 12-14; Reorganization of, 400, 536-538.
- Anesthesia, Discovery of, 361.
- Anglo-American arbitration and the Far East, 602.
- Anglo-Japanese treaty, 139.
- Arbitration:
Anglo-American, and the Far East, 602.
Efficiency of, 91.
Treaties with Great Britain and France, 139, 273.
- Architecture, Anglicanism in, 362.
- Arizona statehood question, 264-265.
- Art:
American painters' exhibition at Rome, 225.
Instinct, popular, Cultivating a, 393.
Israel's, Josef, 487.
- Aryans, The starting point of, 108.
- Austin, Penn., Bursting of dam at, 541.
- Australia and the race question, 220.
- Austria and Germany, The league between, 734.
- Austria, General elections in, 157.
- Austria, High cost of living in, 410.
- Austria versus Italy, an Austrian view, 94.
- Aviation:
Long-distance air races in Europe, 17-18; Progress in, 160; a year's marvelous progress of the aeroplane, 174, 287, 617; deaths, 397, 540; meets, long cross-country flights, and aerial triumphs and disasters, 396-397; postal flights and scout work by aeroplanes, 398, 540; Rodgers' transcontinental trip, 540, 677; Wright Brothers' experiments at Kitty Hawk, 677.
- BALDWIN, Elbert F. Rufus X. and his reign, 687.
- Balkans:
Albania's revolt, 118.
Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, 503.
- Ballads, Oversea, in Kentucky valleys, 497.
- Bananas, growth of the trade in, 99.
- Beard, Dan. The Boy Scouts of America, 429.
- Beef packers attack Sherman anti-trust law, 660.
- Bergson, Henri—philosopher or prophet? 250.
- Berlin and Paris: Two French Opinions, 374.
- Beveridge, Albert J. Federalism in Canada and in the United States, 471.
- Björkman, Frances Maule. An experiment station in race improvement, 327.
- Blindness, Doing away with, 187.
- Bliss, Cornelius N., Death of, 542.
- Bone, Scott. Democrats in Congress making good, 209.
- Books, The new, 123, 253, 381, 509, 636, 753.
- Borden, Robert Laird, new premier of Canada: His message to the American people, 554; character sketch, 555.
- Boy Scout movement, 394, 429.
- Brown, Elmer E., installed as Chancellor of New York University, 677.
- Browne, Herbert Janvrin. Charting and lighting the Caribbean, 598.
- Buddha, 2500th anniversary of, 351.
- Bunting, Sir Percy, a great English editor, 352.
- Business and Investments, Notes on, 119, 377, 505, 632, 749.
- Butler, Nicholas Murray. The Kahn Foundation for the foreign travel of teachers, 47.
- CABLE service, Improving the, 399.
- California election on equal suffrage amendment, 392; woman suffrage adopted, 531; California's radicalism, 532.
- California, Lower, The arid and desert land of, 104.
- Camorra, The, Italy's social cancer, 369.
- Canada:
Borden, Premier, An interview with, 515; program of, 633; his message to the American people, 554.
Campaign, Opening of, 275-277.
Census and reapportionment in, 663.
Connaught, Duke of, New Governor-General, 518.
Copyright, proposed bill, 366.

- Electric power transmission in Ontario, 237.
 Federalism in, 471.
 Growing influence of, in imperial councils, 661.
 Parliament, Meeting of, 139; dissolution of, 275.
 Reciprocity with United States: The bill, 3-6;
 prospects of, 19; reciprocity and American annexation of Canada, 93; bill passed by the senate, 132; from an engineering viewpoint, 216;
 defeat of, 402-404; why it was rejected, 516-517.
 Trusts, Control of in, 367.
 Cardinals, American, The new, 692.
 Caribbean sea, Charting and lighting the, 598.
 Carnegie Peace fund, Utilizing the, 414.
 Carter, Charles Frederick. The advent of the motor ship, 591.
 Cartoon department, 37, 165, 292, 420, 547, 682.
 Charleston, S. C., Hurricane disasters at, 410.
 China:
 China and the Chinese, New books about, 723.
 American on guard in, The (E. T. Williams), 714.
 Census, Attempt to take a, 376.
 Chinese names and word syllables, 674.
 Famine conditions in, 410.
 French missionary's views on, 611.
 Manchu, The, and his chances for surviving, 117.
 "Open Door," China's violation of, 609.
 Opium war in, 221.
 Revolution in, 413, 527-530, 674-676; Manchu regime, End of, 673; a survey of the revolt, 717.
 Russia and the country of Genghis Khan, 102.
 Cholera invasion, Repelling the, 145-146.
 Church: Are there too many ministers? 624.
 Cincinnati election, 652.
 Civil War, The Signal Corps in, 55.
 Civil War, The story of, told by photographs, 459.
 Claxton, Dr. P. P., new United States Commissioner of Education, 147.
 Cleveland election, 392.
 Columbia Glacier in Alaska, 69.
 Congress:
 Congress must assert itself, 647-648.
 Democrats making good in, 209.
 Executive pressure on, Tendency for, 648.
 Extra session, Achievements of, 259.
 Proceedings in (chronological record), 33, 161, 288, 415, 543, 678.
 Tariff: see also under Tariff.
 Trust investigations, 11, 268.
 Wool bill passed, and vetoed, 260-261-262.
 Connecticut legislation, 532.
 Cotton prices, Attempts to keep up, 661.
 Crop Prospects, 10, 145, 267-268, 402.
 Cuba, American attitude toward, 141.
 Cuba as she is, An English view, 625.
 Cummins, Senator, Position of, on Canadian Reciprocity, 132.
 Customs, Collection of, 270.
 D'ANNUNZIO, Gabriel, as art collector, 490.
 Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, An Italian view, 503.
 Delcassé, Theophile, French statesman, 427.
 Democratic leaders in the Senate, 135.
 Democrats making good in Congress, 134.
 De Sévigné, Madame, 231.
 Diamond field, New, in Southwest Africa, 338.
 Diaz, Porfirio, President, Resignation of, 19.
 Diplomatic transfers, 274.
 Doukhobors in British Columbia, 356.
 Dunbar, Olivia Howard. Doing away with blindness, 187.
 Dwight, Walter. New American cardinals, 692.
 EASTERN potentates and their ideals, 109.
 Education: Exchange of teachers in the United States, 95.
 Elections of November in States and cities, 651.
 Electric power transmission in the province of Ontario, 237.
 Electrical Trust, Voluntary dissolution of, 533.
 Ellis, William T. The American on guard in China, 714.
 Emigrants en route, and steerage reform, 348.
 English, Journalism and the future of, 373.
 Escalator *versus* elevator, 106.
 Everyman's Library, 753.
 Eyes: The Measurement of Vision, 232.
 FALCONIO, Diomede, new American cardinal, 692.
 Farming: Dry-farming Congress, Sixth International, at Colorado Springs, 396.
 Farm values in the United States, 268.
 Farley, John M., new American cardinal, 692.
 Farwell, Arthur. New York's municipal music, 451.
 Federalism in Canada and the United States, 471.
 Feminist movement in France, 354.
 Finland, Tolstoy on, 219.
 Flood at Austin, Penn., 541.
 Football neither a game nor a sport, 481.
 Forbes, Edgar Allen. Frenchman and German in Africa, 305.
 Forest Fires, Prevention of, 64.
 France, Constitutional reform in, 732.
 France, Cost-of-living riots in, 410.
 France: Ministry, New, in, 150.
 Frye, William P., Senator, Death of, 287.
 Furs, High price of, and its causes, 629.
 GERMANY:
 Army, The, 735.
 Austria, The league with, 734.
 Colonies, Development of, 223.
 Financial troubles of, 400.
 Foreign trade of, 627.
 German house-wives of the next generation, 372.
 German pioneers in the United States, 358.
 Germany's fight for power, 49.
 Political parties in, 245.
 Gilbert, William S., librettist, 98.
 Governmental conditions, World movement for improvement of, 643-644.
 Governors' conference at Spring Lake, N. J., 387.
 Great Britain:
 Anglo-Japanese treaty, 139.
 Balfour, Arthur J., Retirement of, as leader of Unionist forces, 665, 666.
 British Empire and world federation, 210.
 Census of the United Kingdom and Ireland, 29.
 Commons, House of, Disorder in, on occasion of consideration of Lords' amendments, 279.
 Coronation of George V., 24; the coronation as seen by a Frenchman, 499.
 Home rule next, 281-282.
 Imperial conference, The, 28.
 Indian army, Reduction of, 31.
 King George's visit to India, 667.
 Law, A. Bonar, successor to Balfour in party leadership, 666.
 Lords, House of, and the Veto bill, 150.
 Lords, Surrender of the, 279-281.
 Parliamentary affairs; cabinet changes; retirement of Balfour, 665.
 Prince of Wales, The "investiture" of, 149.
 Problems, domestic and foreign, of England, 278.
 Strike of the transportation workers, 283-284; end of, 406-407.
 Greely, A. W. Signal Corps in the Civil War, 55.
 HAGENECK, Carl, as an educator, 491.
 Haiti, Revolution in, 278.
 Harger, Charles Moreau. The new era of the ranch lands, 580.
 Harlan, John Marshall, associate justice of the Supreme Court, 553.
 Harper, Ida Husted. The world movement for woman suffrage, 725.
 Hart, Sir Robert, the Irishman who ruled China, 612.
 Harvey, Alexander. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Britain's Greatest Premier, 41.
 Honduras, a country of many possibilities, 501.
 Honduras, New treaty with to insure stability of finances, 22-23.

- IMMIGRATION tide, Ebb and flow of, 697.
 Indians, American, National convention of, 536.
 Industrial courts, 477.
 Interstate Commerce Commission's decision on long and short haul clause, 266.
 Israels, Josef, Holland's master painter, 487.
 Italy:
 Camorra, The, 369.
 Cholera epidemic in, 410.
 Domestic problems of, 741.
 Life insurance, State monopoly of, 222.
 Theatrical museums in, 114.
 Merchant marine policy and expansion, 608.
 War with Turkey, 520-524.
- JAMES, Ollie M., chosen Senator from Kentucky, 137.
 Japan:
 Cabinet change in, 414.
 Christian missions in, a Japanese view, 371.
 University of Tokyo, 745.
 Factory work for women, 111.
 Navy since the war with Russia, 85.
 Jew, Spirit of, as seen by a Dane, 247.
 Journalism and the future of English, 373.
- KAHN Foundation for the foreign travel of American teachers, 47.
 Kaletur Falls, British Guiana, 620.
 King, Horatio C. The story of the Civil War told by photographs, 459.
 Knauff, Ernest. Edwin Austin Abbey, America's greatest illustrator, 300.
 Kokovtsov, New Russian premier, 613.
- LABOR: Industrial courts, 477.
 Labor, Organized, and industrial efficiency, 482.
 Laurier, Sir Wilfrid, Canadian Premier, 19, 41.
 Laut, Agnes C. Preparations on the Pacific for Panama, 705; Robert Laird Borden, the new premier of Canada, 555; scenic highways in the southwest, 193.
 Leading Articles of the Month, 91, 216, 344, 481, 605, 730.
 Lelewel, Joachim, Poland's greatest historian, 350.
 Levin, Rachel, and her salon, 224.
 Lighthouse builders, The, 743.
 Lindsay, Forbes. Panama, the next step, 595.
 Liverpool's docks, Development of, 233.
 Living, High cost of, in France and Austria, 410.
 London, Declaration of, approved, 30.
 Los Angeles primary election, 654.
- MADERO, President, of Mexico, inaugurated, 664.
 Maine, Battleship, Uncovering of, 142.
 Maine, Prohibition fight in, 272, 391, 531.
 Man, primeval, Our knowledge of, 623.
 Man, The misunderstood, in Germany, 244.
 Manchu, The, and his chances for surviving, 117.
 Mapping the world on a standard scale, 319.
 Maps and diagrams:
 Aeroplane journey, longest, Route of, 288.
 Africa, Central, What France and Germany have exchanged in, 668.
 New diamond fields in, 369.
 Africa, Important facts about, 306.
 Africa, Proposed continental railroads, 670.
 California, Lower, 104.
 Canada, Showing how the provinces voted on reciprocity, 560.
 Caribbean Sea, Charting of, 599.
 China; Scene of revolutionary outbreak, 528, 716.
 Ergograph, The, diagram showing a record of, 333.
 Forests, National, in the west, Completed and projected roads in, 194.
 Immigration chart of third class transatlantic travel, 702.
 Italy's war with Turkey; area of hostilities, 521, 564.
 Mediterranean sea and coasts; Scene of Turco-Italian war, 521.
- Morocco, as partitioned by Europe, 153.
 Morocco, France's pacific penetration in, 155.
 New York City Budget Exhibit: Cubical method of showing expenditures, 577.
 New York City boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn superimposed on Columbia Glacier, 71.
 North America, Early maps of, 125.
 Seattle, Fresh water harbor of, 708.
 Taft, President: Route of continental trip of, 389.
 Tripolitan coast, scene of Turco-Italian war, 564.
 World map, International, Index diagram of sheets for, 321; arrangement of atlas sheets for United States, 322; one degree square of sheet "North 1-18," 323.
- Marriage state, Fair play by men in, 115.
 Martin, Lawrence, Columbia Glacier—Alaska's typical ice tongue, 69.
 Maryland election campaign, 392.
 Massachusetts primary election, 533.
 Mayer, Mary Josephine. Public schools as social centers, 201.
 Mehmed V., Sultan, as seen by W. T. Stead, 492.
 Men and Religion Forward Movement, 394-396.
 Menkel, William. The aeroplane—a year's marvelous progress, 174.
- Mexico:
 Diaz, President, Resignation of, and the beginning of the new regime, 19-22.
 Election in, Presidential, 277, 405.
 Madero, Francisco, elected President, 519; inauguration of, 664.
 Madero's progressive policies, 140-141.
 Ministry, Christian—Is it overcrowded? 624.
 Missions, Christian, in Japan, 371.
 Mitchell, Guy Elliott. The prevention of forest fires, 64.
 Monna Lisa, Theft of, and its effect on the Louvre, 485.
 Morality, Double standard of, Delinquent Women and, 242.
- Morocco: Morocco question, Reopening of (with historical resume of subject), 150-156; negotiations over, 284-286; agreement about, 408-410; 667-669.
 Motor ship, Advent of the, 591.
 Motor wagon, Economy of the, 439.
 Municipal City gardens *versus* hoodlumism, 622.
 Municipal: Commission government, Growth of, 16.
 Municipal elections, Public interest in, 652-654.
 Municipal music in New York, 451.
 Music and Chauvinism, 97.
 Music, Municipal, in New York, 451.
 Music: Oversea ballads in Kentucky, 497.
- NAVAL notes of interest, 531.
 Naval reviews at New York and San Francisco, 662; need for naval maintenance, 662.
 Netherlands, Subsidence of the soil in, 500.
 New Jersey legislative election, 654.
 New Mexico and statehood, 264-265.
 New York City:
 Budget exhibit, 572.
 Charter for, New, 271-272.
 Municipal music in, 451.
 Population, Density of, 631.
 Rapid transit for, 15.
 New York State legislation for road building, 147.
 New York's new primary law, 532.
 Nicaragua, New treaty with, to insure stability of finances, 22-23.
 Novalis letters, The, 248.
- OBITUARY, 36, 164, 291, 418, 546, 681.
 O'Connell, William H., new American cardinal, 694.
 Orvis, Mary Burchard. Getting the most out of our wood products, 334.
- PACIFIC coast harbors, 705.
 Packers, Beef, and Sherman anti-trust law, 660.
 Painters' exhibit at Rome, American, 225.

- Panama, Presidential election in, 278.
 Panama Canal and its future administration, 595.
 Panama Canal bonds successfully sold, 10-11.
 Panama Canal, Preparations on Pacific coast for, 705.
 Panama-Pacific Exposition site at San Francisco, 390.
 Papal sovereignty, 483.
 Paper in the tariff of 1909, 4.
 Paraguay, Centenary of, 618.
 Paris and Berlin—Two French Opinions, 374.
 Paris, New system of gas illumination in, 733.
 Parliamentary changes in continental Europe, 30.
 Peace Conference, International, at Berne, 414.
 Peace fund, Carnegie, Utilizing the, 414.
 Peace, International: The British Empire and the federation of the world, 211.
 Penfield, Frederic Courtland. Germany's fight for power, 49.
 Perkins, George W., before Stanley Congressional investigating committee, 269.
 Persia, Shah of—his trainings, 32.
 Philadelphia election, 392, 652.
 Philanthropists, American millionaires as, 112.
 Pius X. and his reign, 687.
 Poets, American—an estimate for Germans, 345.
 Poland's greatest historian, Joachim Lelewel, 350.
 Politics;
 City and State campaigns and elections, 533, 651.
 Democrats in Congress, 134-135.
 Parties and real issues, 614.
 Presidential aspirants, 654-655.
 Presidential year and its drawbacks, 644-645.
 Progressive Republicans' conference at Chicago, 535.
 Republican party, convention of, representation in, 656; Republican party, need of reform in machinery of, 655.
 Referendum, initiative, recall, and commission city government, 16-17.
 Senators, Direct election of, 10.
 Socialist victories, 653.
 World movement for good government, 643-644.
 Polo, International, matches, 18.
 Pope: Papal sovereignty, 483; Pius X. and his reign, 687.
 Population in New York City, density of, 631.
 Portraits:
 Abbey, Edwin Austin, 300.
 Adler, Dr. Felix, 339.
 Agbebi, Dr. Mojola, 341.
 Aldrich, Chester H., Governor, 386, 388.
 Amadeo, Prince Luigi, Vice-Admiral, 523.
 Anderson, Mrs. Charles, 7.
 Anderson, Lars, U. S. Minister to Belgium, 275.
 Arbeely, Professor Joseph, 237.
 Arriaga, Dr. Manuel, Constitutional President of Portugal, 406.
 Asquith, Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry, Premier of Great Britain, 24, 149, 278.
 Atwood, Henry N., 176.
 Baden-Powell, General, 395.
 Baker, Bernard N., 401.
 Baker, Newton D., Mayor of Cleveland, 392, 654.
 Bakhmetiev, George, Russian Ambassador to the U. S., and his American wife, 527.
 Balfour, Rt. Hon. Arthur, 18.
 Baroda, The Gaekwar of, 341.
 Barry, General Thomas H., 413.
 Bartlett, Charles L., 11.
 Bascom, John, 747.
 Beachey, Lincoln, 175.
 Beale, Sir Charles G., 407.
 Beall, Jack, 11.
 Beard, Dan, 395.
 Beaupre, Arthur M., U. S. Minister to Cuba, 275.
 Behrens (British geographer), 319.
 Bergson, Henri, 250.
 Beurdeley (French geographer), 319.
 Bharati, Baba, 341.
 Bigelow, W. D., 138.
 Bixby, William H., General, 161.
 Blankenburg, Rudolph, Governor, 652.
 Bliss, Cornelius N., 542.
 Blount, A. E., Secretary to Premier Borden, 514.
 Blücher, Gebhard Leberecht von, 760.
 Boardman, Miss Mabel T., head American Red Cross Society, 646.
 Boaz, Dr. Franz, 340.
 Bolívar, Simon, 619.
 Borden, Hon. Robert L., Premier of Canada, 276, 405, 514, 555, with Mrs. Borden, 557.
 Botha, Louis, General, 30, 149.
 Bourassa, Hon. Henri, 277.
 Breguet, Louis, 177.
 Brewer, Earl, Governor, 651.
 Brodeur, Hon. Louis P., 277.
 Bruce, Sir Charles, 341.
 Brückner (Austrian geographer), 319.
 Bryan, Charles Page, Ambassador to Japan, 274.
 Bunting, Sir Percy, 352.
 Burke, John, Governor of North Dakota, 386.
 Burnett, John, 407.
 Burrell, Martin, Canadian Minister of Agriculture, 514.
 Burton, Theodore E., Senator, 133.
 Bryce, James, British Ambassador, 677.
 Cadogan, George Henry, Earl, 27.
 Caillaux, Joseph, Premier of France, 152.
 Cambon, Jules, French Ambassador, 285, 411.
 Canterbury, Archbishop of, 667.
 Capron, A. B., Lieutenant, 59.
 Caputo (Italian geographer), 319.
 Carey, J. M., Governor of Wyoming, 286.
 Carnegie, Andrew, 677.
 Carter, John Ridgely, 275.
 Casenave, M., 610.
 Cavour, Camillo Benso di, 758.
 Chadwick, French E., Admiral, 637.
 Chandler, Captain, 178.
 China, Emperor of, 675.
 Ching Pih Kwong, Rear Admiral, 413.
 Church, Colonel W. C., 462.
 Clark, F. A., 267.
 Clarke, G. J., Lieutenant, 59.
 Claxton, Dr. P. P., 147.
 Clements, Judson C., 267.
 Close (British geographer), 319.
 Cochrane, Frank, Canadian Minister of Railways, 514.
 Colston, Captain Frederick M., 462.
 Connaught, Duke of, Governor-General of Canada, 2, 517, 559.
 Conneau, Lieutenant (André Beaumont), 180.
 Cordes, H., 610.
 Coxe, Alfred C., Judge, 14.
 Crothers, Austin L., Governor of Maryland, 386.
 Crothers, T. W., Canadian Minister of Labor, 514.
 Cubillo (Spanish geographer), 319.
 Cunningham, S. A., 462.
 Daniels, Professor Francis, 48.
 Darley (Austrian geographer), 319.
 Davids, Dr. T. W. Rhys, and Mrs. Davids, 341.
 Davidson, Randall T., Archbishop of Canterbury, 667.
 Davis, Charles E., Captain, 59.
 Decatur, Captain Stephen, 562.
 Delcassé, Théophile, French Minister of Marine, 427.
 De Navratil, Dr., 340.
 De Sévigné, Madame, 231.
 Diaz, Porfirio, 20.
 Dickinson, Jacob M., 657.
 Dillingham, William P., Senator, 9.
 Doherty, C. J., Canadian Minister of Justice, 514.
 Doty, Dr. A. H., 146.
 Du Bois, Dr. W. E. B., 340.
 Dutrieu, Mlle. Helene, 397.
 Earle, George H., Jr., 392.
 Eastman, Dr. C. A., 340.
 Eaton, General William, 562.
 Edward Albert, Prince of Wales, 149, 666.
 Ellis, Sir Thomas Ratchiffe, 407.

- Emery, Henry C., 535.
 Falconio, Diomedea, Cardinal, 693.
 Farley, John M., Cardinal, 695.
 Fielding, Hon. W. S., 277.
 Finch, Professor Earl, 340.
 Fisher, Hon. Andrew, Premier of Australia, 149.
 Fletcher, Duncan U., Senator, 9.
 Fort, John Franklin, ex-Governor of N. J., 386.
 Foss, Eugene N., Governor, 386, 534.
 Foulée, Professor, 340.
 Foster, George E., Canadian Minister of Trade and Commerce, 514.
 France, Anatole, 353.
 Frederick William, Crown Prince, 669.
 Fried, Alfred, 340.
 Frye, William P., Senator, 287.
 Funston, Frederick, General, 759.
 Gamble, Robert J., Senator, 9.
 Garrett, Finis J., 13.
 Garros, Roland, 180.
 Gary, Elbert H., 12, 657.
 Gautier, Mme. Judith, 355.
 Gaynor, William J., Mayor, 146, 393.
 Genoa, Duke of, 523.
 George V., King of England, 2, 25, 151, 162.
 Gibbons, James, Cardinal, 35.
 Gilbert, Sir William, 99.
 Gilchrist, Albert W., Governor of Florida, 386.
 Gilman, J. E., 462.
 Giolitti, Signor, Premier of Italy, 742.
 Giuliano, Marquis di San, Italy's Minister of Foreign Affairs, 525.
 Glasscock, William E., Governor, 386.
 Goldsborough, Hon. Phillips Lee, 531.
 Gordon, General George W., 419.
 Gordon, J. H., 164.
 Gore, Thomas P., Senator, 135.
 Gorman, Hon. Arthur Pue, 534.
 Grant (British geographer), 319.
 Greely, General A. W., as captain, 462.
 Hadley, Herbert S., Governor, 386, 388.
 Hafid, Mulai, Sultan of Morocco, 409.
 Hagenbeck, Carl, 491.
 Halsbury, Hardinge Stanley Giffard, Lord, 280.
 Hamilton, Duchess of, 27.
 Harcourt, Hon. Lewis Vernon, Secretary for the Colonies, 149.
 Hardwick, Thomas W., 13.
 Harlan, John Marshall, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, 553.
 Harlan, J. S., 267.
 Harmon, Judson, Governor of Ohio, 386, 388.
 Harrel, Sir David, K. C. V. O., 407.
 Harrison, Frederic, 760.
 Hassan, Acheson F., 323.
 Hazen, J. D., Canadian Minister of Marine and Fisheries, 514.
 Hart, Sir Robert, 613.
 Hawley, James H., Governor of Idaho, 386.
 Hay, M. E., Governor of Washington, 386.
 Hedley, Captain F. Y., 462.
 Henderson, Dr. Archibald, 761.
 Henderson, Arthur, M. P., 407.
 Herbert, Colonel Hilary A., 462.
 Herron, Miss (Mrs. Taft's sister), 7.
 Hiller, E. G., 610.
 Hilton, Harold H., 398.
 Hinds, Asher C., Representative, 13.
 Hitchcock, Frank H., Postmaster-General, 541.
 Hogen, Frank G., 392.
 Holmes, Dr. J. A., 646.
 Homer, Winslow, 757.
 Howard, William M., 535.
 Hughes, Colonel Sam, Canadian Minister of Militia, 514.
 Hunt, Henry T., Mayor of Cincinnati, 655.
 Ingersoll, Robert G., 680.
 Israels, Josef, leader modern Dutch school of painting, 487.
 Jabavu, J. Tengo, 341.
 James, Ollie M., Representative, 137.
 Jewett, Sarah Orne, 757.
 Johnson, George W., 164.
 Johnston (British geographer), 319.
 Johnston, Sir H., 341.
 Johnston, Joseph F., Senator, 9.
 Johnstone, St. Croix, 185.
 Jones, S. S., 164.
 Jones, Wesley L., Senator, 9.
 Jordan, William G., 386.
 Karb, George J., Mayor of Columbus, 654.
 Kato, Dr. Genchi, 341.
 Kebler, L. F., 138.
 Keltie (British geographer), 319.
 Kenyon, William S., Senator, 9.
 Kern, John W., Senator, 9.
 Kilmer, George L., 462.
 Kitchener, Lord, British Consul-General to India, 158.
 Kitchin, W. W., Governor of North Carolina, 386.
 Kokovtsov, Vladimir, Premier of Russia, 614.
 Kübel (American geographer), 319.
 Lacombe, E. Henry, Judge, 14.
 La Follette, Robert M., Senator, 10, 535.
 La Fontaine, Henri, 340.
 Lallemand (French geographer), 319.
 Lane, F. K., 267.
 Laurier, Rt. Hon. Sir Wilfrid, 29, 43, 149, 403.
 Law, Andrew Bonar, 665.
 Lea, Luke, Senator, 9.
 Légitimé, General, 340.
 Leishman, J. G. A., Ambassador to Germany, 274.
 Lelewel, Joachim, Polish historian, 351.
 Lemieux, Hon. Rudolph, 277.
 Lewis, Ida, keeper of Lime Rock Lighthouse, 744.
 Lindaburg, Richard, 12.
 Littleton, Martin W., Representative, 11, 650.
 Lloyd-George, David, British Chancellor, 30, 258.
 Loczy (Hungarian geographer), 319.
 Long, Crawford Williamson, discoverer of anæsthesia, 361.
 Loreburn, Sir Robert T. R., Lord Chancellor, 667.
 Lowe, T. S. C., 462.
 Lunn, Dr. George R., Mayor of Schenectady, 655.
 Luschan, Dr., 340.
 Luther, Catharine von Bora, 761.
 Luther, Martin, 124.
 McAney, George, 15.
 McBride, Hon. Richard, 277.
 McChord, C. C., 267.
 McCook, Colonel John, 418.
 McCormick, Harold F., 163.
 McCreary, James B., Governor, 651.
 McCumber, Porter J., Senator, 5.
 McDonald, A. C., 164.
 McDonald, W. M., 164.
 McGillicuddy, D. J., 11.
 McGovern, F. C., Governor of Wisconsin, 386.
 McIntosh, Colonel D. G., 462.
 McKim, Lieutenant R. H., 462.
 McPherson, Professor John H. T., 47.
 Macdonald, Hon. Ramsay, 282.
 Mackenzie, Dr. J. S., 341.
 Madero, Francisco, 406, 519; with Señora Madero, 664.
 Madison, Edmund H., 13.
 Malby, George R., 13.
 Mallet, Lieutenant-Colonel J. W., 462.
 Mann, William Hodges, Governor, 386.
 Mannesmann, the Brothers, 305.
 March, Professor Francis A., 418.
 Markoff (Russian geologist), 319.
 Mars, James C., 185.
 Marshall, Robert Bradford, 323.
 Martinez, Señor Gilberto Crespo y, Mexican Ambassador, 140.
 Mary, Queen of England, 25, 151.
 Mehmed V., Sultan of Turkey, 493.
 Meigs, John, 681.
 Meyer, B. H., 267.
 Meyer, George von L., Secretary, 647.
 Moisant, Miss Matilda, 396.
 Monk, F. D., Canadian Minister of Public Works, 514.

- Monna Lisa, the painting by Da Vinci, 486.
Morgan, J. Pierpont, 658.
Morley, Rt. Hon. John, Viscount, 667.
Morris, Sir Edward, Premier of Newfoundland, 149.
Nantel, Bruno, Canadian Minister of Inland Revenue, 514.
Noel, Edmond F., Governor of Mississippi, 386.
Nogi, General, 28.
Norris, Edwin L., Governor of Montana, 386.
Noyes, Walter C., Judge, 14.
O'Connell, William H., Cardinal, 695.
O'Neal, Emmett, Governor of Alabama, 383.
O'Reilly, Mary Boyle, 79.
Overman, Lee S., Senator, 264.
Page, Thomas W., 535.
Pankhurst, Sylvia, 126.
Partsch (Saxon geographer), 319.
Patrick, Arthur William, Duke of Connaught, 667.
Payne, W. C., 164.
Pease, F. H., Senator, 9.
Peck, Captain T. S., 462.
Pelletier, L. P., Canadian Postmaster-General, 514.
Penck (German geographer), 319.
Penrose, Boies, Senator, 135.
Perley, George, Quebec, 514.
Pius X., Pope, 484, 689.
Plaisted, Frederick W., Governor of Maine, 386.
Polacchi (French geographer), 319.
Portland, Duchess of, 27.
Pothier, Aram J., Governor of Rhode Island, 386.
Prouty, C. A., 267.
Pulitzer, Joseph, 642.
Pu-yi, Emperor of China, 675.
Pyle, Howard, 748.
Quimby, Miss Harriet, 183.
Quinby, Henry B., 386.
Raker, John E., 13.
Ream, N. B., 12.
Redwood, Allen C., 462.
Reid, Dr. J. D., Canadian Minister of Customs, 514.
Reinsch, Dr. Paul S., 340.
Reyes, General Bernardo, 406.
Reynolds, James B., 535.
Ridder, Herman, 4.
Riel, Louis, 365.
Roberts, Deering J., 462.
Roberts, Percival, 12.
Roche, Dr. W. J., Canadian Secretary of State, 514.
Rodenbough, Brevet Brigadier-General T. F., 462.
Rodgers, Calbraith P., 677.
Rodin, Auguste, French sculptor, 489.
Rogers, Robert, Canadian Minister of the Interior, 514.
Rolph, James, Jr., 531.
Roosevelt, Theodore, 269, 659.
Rosebery, Archibald P. P., Lord, 27.
Rusby, H. H., Professor, 138.
Said Pasha, Grand Vizier of Turkey, 523.
Sanders, Alvin H., 535.
Sargent, John S., 225.
Schley, Winfield Scott, Rear-Admiral, 542.
Seal, Dr., 341.
Sebastian, Saint, 360.
Sergi, Dr. Giuseppe, 340.
Shafroth, John F., Governor of Colorado, 386.
Shah, Ahmed, 32.
Shaw, George Bernard, with his biographer, Dr. Henderson, 761.
Shepard, Edward M., 287.
Shevket Pasha, Turkish Minister of War, 523.
Smith, George Otis, 323.
Smith, Herbert Knox, 143.
Smith, Hoke, Governor of Georgia, 136, 386.
Sopwith, Tom, 182.
Sothman, P. W., 237.
Spicer, James B., 164.
Spiller, Gustave, 340.
Spry, William, Governor of Utah, 386.
Stanley, Augustus O., 11.
Stegman, Colonel L. B., 462.
Stetson, Francis Lynde, 657.
Stolypin, Peter A., Premier of Russia, 428.
Straight, W. D., 610.
Strathcona, Lord, 364.
Strindberg, August, 616.
Stubbs, Walter R., Governor of Kansas, 386.
Suarez, Señor José Pino, 520.
Sun Yat Sen, Dr., Chinese rebel leader, 530.
Taft, Mrs. Henry W., 7.
Taft, William H., President, 7, 33, 646, 653.
Taft, Mrs. William H., 33.
Taft family group, 7.
Talcott, Colonel T. M. R., 462.
Taylor, P. A., Captain, 59.
Tener, John K., Governor of Pennsylvania, 386.
Tettau (German geographer), 319.
Thackeray, William M., 227.
Thompson-Seton, Ernest, 395.
Togo, Admiral, 28, 169, 413.
Torrey, Delia (in Taft family group), 7.
Trimble, Judge Harvey M., Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, 417.
Underwood, Oscar W., Congressman, 296.
Vail, Theodore N., 399.
Van't Hoff, Jacobus H., 242.
Vare, William S., 392.
Védrines, M., 181, 185.
Vessey, Robert S., Governor, 386.
Viereck, George Sylvester, 345.
Von der Goltz, Freiherr Kolmar, Commander-in-Chief of the German Army, 522.
Von Hardtenthurm (Austrian geographer), 319.
Von Kiderlen-Waechter, Alfred, Baron, German Foreign Minister, 285, 426, 522.
Ward, Henry G., Judge, 14.
Ward, Sir Joseph, Premier of New Zealand, 149.
Weardale, Rt. Hon. Lord, 339.
Welles, Gideon, 756.
Weymann, Charles T., 175.
White, W. T., Canadian Minister of Finance, 514.
Whitlock, Brand, Mayor of Toledo, 654.
Whitney, Sir James, 277.
Wickersham, George W., Attorney-General, 649.
Wiley, Dr. Harvey W., 130, 138.
Wilkens (German geographer), 319.
William II., Emperor of Germany, 51.
Williams, Edward Thomas, American Charge d'Affaires in China, 715.
Williams, John Sharp, Senator, 136.
Willis (American geographer), 319.
Wills, J. J., 407.
Willson, Augustus E., Governor, 386.
Wilson, Fountain, Captain, 59.
Wilson, Woodrow, Governor of New Jersey, 386.
Wright, Brigadier-General M. J., 462.
Wu Ting Fang, Dr., 341, 676.
Wyeth, John A., 462.
Yahya, Hadji, 341.
Yastchenko, Dr. A., 340.
Young (Canadian geographer), 319.
Young, H. Olin, Representative, 11.
Yuan Shih-Kai, 530.
Zangwill, Israel, 341.
Portugal and Spanish intervention, 496.
Portugal, Presidential election in, 403.
Postal savings banks, Success of, 270-271.
Powell, E. Alexander. Tripolitania, the Italian "White Man's Burden," 561.
Presidency of the United States: Growth of the executive power, 6; Power of, as compared with that of the King of England, 7; Power, burdens and requirements of the office, 645-647.
Prison experiments in humanity, 347.
Prisons, State, Care of women in, 76.
Progress of the World, 3, 131, 259, 337, 515, 643.
Prohibition contests in Maine and Texas, 272.
Psychology and mysticism, 110.
Pulitzer, Joseph (brief sketch), 642.
Pyle, Howard, artist-author, 748.

- RACE improvement, An experiment station in, 327
 Races Congress, Universal, at London, 339.
 Railroad earnings and operating expenses, 539.
 Railroad accident at Bridgeport, Conn., 159.
 Railroads. Interstate Commerce Commission's decision on long and short haul clause, 266.
 Ranch lands, The new era of, 580.
 Recall, The, in the constitutions of Arizona and New Mexico, 17; As applied to judges, 265.
 Record of Current Events, 33, 161, 288, 415, 543, 678.
 Reptiles, Cretaceous, from German East Africa, 96.
 Republican national convention, representation in, 656. Republican party, Need of reform in machinery of, 655-656.
 Republican progressives' conference, 535.
 Rhode Island campaign, 534.
 Roads, Building better, 147.
 Robert, Jeanne. Care of women in prisons, 76.
 Rodin (sculptor) and his views on art, 488.
 Roosevelt, Theodore, as witness before Stanley Congressional Committee, 269; his connection with Tennessee Coal and Iron merger with Steel Trust, 657.
 Russia:
 Higher education for women in, 502.
 Premier Stolypin assassinated, 412.
 Premier, New, in, 526.
 Revolution in, and its effect on the Jews, 494.
 Siberia and her economic problems, 218.
 SAINT Sebastian, Mystery of, 359.
 San Francisco election, 392.
 San Francisco. Panama-Pacific Exposition, 390.
 Scenic highways in the southwest, 193.
 Schley, Winfield Scott, Rear-Admiral, Death of, 542.
 Schenectady election, 653.
 School systems, city, Facts about, 272.
 Schools, Public, as social centers, 201.
 Scientific management in the navy, 229.
 Seal fisheries agreement between United States, Great Britain, Russia and Japan, 140.
 Senators, Direct election of, 10.
 Senussiyeh, The, the all-Mohammedan brotherhood, 739.
 Shepard, Edward M., Death of, 287.
 Sherman anti-trust law: Decisions under, 144; Efficacy of, 649; Attacked by beef packing companies, 660.
 Sherwood, Herbert Francis. Ebb and flow of the immigration tide, 697.
 Ships, American, for Panama Canal traffic, 401-402.
 Siberia and her economic problems, 218.
 Singh, Saint Nihal. Trying to solve the world's problems of peace, 339.
 Slav. The Unislav League, 113.
 Smith, Hoke, as governor and senator, 136.
 Socialist municipal victories, 653.
 Spain, Strikes and violence in, 411.
 Sports: International tennis, golf and polo matches and motor-boat races, 398.
 Standard Oil Company reorganization, 650.
 State and city campaigns, 533.
 State department,—its organization and work, 23.
 State legislation, 16.
 Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico, 264-265.
 Stead, W. T., Efforts of, to secure arbitration in Turco-Italian war, 672.
 Stead, W. T. The British Empire and the Federation of the World, 211.
 Steel Corporation, United States, Report on by Bureau of Corporations, 143-144; directors' statement as to legality of corporation, 540; the Hill ore lands deal, 658; government move to dissolve, 656-660.
 Stock market conditions, 400, 539.
 Stolypin, Russian premier, assassinated, 412, 428.
 Stolypin's tribute to Polish culture, 615.
 Strathcona, Lord, 364.
 Suicides, Schoolboy, in Germany, 628.
 Sumner, Helen L. Industrial courts, 477.
 Supreme Court decision in American Tobacco Company case, 12-14. (See also under American Tobacco Company); decisions in interpretation of Sherman anti-trust law, 144-145.
 Sweden, Parliamentary elections in, 525-526.
 Sweden's Future Government: Monoplane or Biplane? 616.
 Swiss national art, Why there is no, 736.
 Syrian in America, The, 235.
 TAFT, President, Western trip of, 388-389, 534.
 Tariff: See also under Congress.
 Tariff as a live issue, 650.
 Tariff board, Powers and composition of, 134, 262, 534-535.
 Tariff in party politics, 651.
 Tariff: Paper and pulp schedule, Need of revision in, 131-132.
 Tariff revision inevitable, 133-134.
 Teachers' foreign travel, Kahn Foundation for, 47.
 Telegraph: Western Union report, 399.
 Telephone line, World's loftiest, 742.
 Tennessee Coal and Iron Company merger with United States Steel Corporation, 657.
 Texas, Vote against prohibition in, 272.
 Thackeray centenary, 226.
 Tobacco: See under American Tobacco Company.
 Togo, Admiral, type of Samurai, 169.
 Tokyo, University of, 745.
 Tolstoy on Finland, 219.
 Trade with Central and South America, 401.
 Tripolitania, Italy's "White Man's Burden," 561.
 Trust-busting in practice, 650.
 Trust investigation by Congress, 11, 649.
 Trust regulation, Public opinion on, 649.
 Trusts and their control in Canada, 367.
 Trust regulation. See also under Sherman anti-trust law and under Supreme Court decisions.
 Trusts: Dissolution of "Electrical Trust," 538.
 Turco-Italian war, 670-673; opinion in Turkey and Italy on the war, 605.
 Turkey, Conditions in, 31, 157-158.
 Turkey: Sultan Mehmed V., as seen by W. T. Stead, 492.
 Turkey's determination to resist Italy, 737.
 Turkish attitude toward Morocco, 494.
 Turkish Empire, Renaissance of, 239.
 UNDERWOOD, Oscar, of Alabama, 296.
 Union Pacific and Southern Pacific merger, 144-145.
 University of Tokyo, 745.
 University, The, and the public service—the Wisconsin idea, 746.
 University presidents, New, 677.
 VAN'T HOFF, Jacobus Henricus, the chemist, 241.
 Venezuela, Centenary celebration in, 618.
 Vineland (New Jersey) Training School for Feeble Minded Boys and Girls, 328.
 Vision, The measurement of, 232.
 Von Kiderlen-Waechter, Alfred, Baron, German Secretary of Foreign Affairs, 426.
 WADE, Herbert T. Mapping the world on a standard scale, 319; New York budget exhibit, 572.
 Wall Street: See under Stock Market.
 Wardrop, Walter. Economy of motor wagon, 439.
 Wiley, Dr. Harvey W., Charges against, 138, 270; vindication of, 393.
 Williams, Edward Thomas, America's diplomatic representative at Peking, 714.
 Wisconsin, Recent legislation in, 147-148.
 Wisconsin, University of, and public service, 746.
 Woman: Feminist movement in France, 354.
 Woman suffrage, California adopts, 531.
 Woman suffrage, The world movement for, 725.
 Women's rights, origin of, Anatole France on, 353.
 Wood products, Getting the most out of, 334.
 Woolley, Robert W. Oscar Underwood: Democracy's new chieftain, 296.
 Workmen's compensation laws, 344.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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CONTENTS FOR JULY, 1911

King George and His Uncle.....	Frontispiece	The Kahn Foundation for the Foreign Travel of American Teachers.....	47
The Progress of the World—		By NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER	
Will Congress Continue in Session?.....	3	With portraits of Professors McPherson and Daniels	
Press and Public Information.....	3	Germany's Fight for Power.....	49
Why the Newspapers Are Fighting.....	3	By FREDERIC COURTLAND PENFIELD	
Paper in the Tariff of 1909.....	3	With portrait of Emperor William II.	
Masterfulness of Presidents.....	4	The Signal Corps in the Civil War.....	55
Mr. Taft's Arguments.....	4	By A. W. GREELY	
His Tactics with Congress.....	4	With illustrations	
Coöperating Forces.....	5	The Prevention of Forest Fires.....	64
A Principle at Stake.....	5	By GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL	
No Amendments Tolerated.....	6	With illustrations	
Growth of the Executive Power.....	6	Columbia—Alaska's Typical Glacier.....	69
A White House Function.....	8	By LAWRENCE MARTIN	
Will the Senate Do Business?.....	8	With illustrations	
The Country's Mandate.....	8	The Care of Women in State Prisons..	76
Will Taft Support the Democrats?.....	9	By JEANNE ROBERT	
Direct Election of Senators.....	10	With portrait of Mary Boyle O'Reilly and other illustrations	
Good Promise of Cotton and Wheat.....	10	Japan's Navy Since the War with Russia	85
Panama Bonds a Great Success.....	10	By ADACHI KINOSUKE	
Congress Investigating Trusts.....	11	Leading Articles of the Month—	
The American Tobacco Decision.....	12	The Efficacy of Arbitration.....	91
The Future of the Tobacco Company.....	14	Will Canada Be Lost?—A Canadian View...	92
Rapid Transit for New York.....	15	Austria <i>versus</i> Italy—An Austrian View.....	94
State Legislation.....	16	Exchanges of Teachers in the United States..	95
"Commission" Cities.....	16	New Cretaceous Reptiles from East Africa...	96
Governor Wilson's Endorsement.....	17	Music and Chauvinism.....	97
The Recall.....	17	Gilbert, Author of "Pinafore".....	98
Great Air Races in Europe.....	17	Three Thousand Million Bananas a Year.....	99
Flying and Polo in America.....	18	Russia, China, and the Country of Genghis Khan	102
Prospects of Reciprocity at Ottawa.....	19	The Arid and Desert Land of Lower California	104
The Eminence of Laurier.....	19	Escalator <i>versus</i> Elevator.....	106
The Effacement of Diaz.....	19	The Starting Point of the Aryans.....	108
Enter the New Régime.....	20	Eastern Potentates and Their Ideals.....	109
Preparing to Choose a President.....	21	How Psychology and Mysticism Are Related.	110
The New Order, from a Business Standpoint.	21	Japanese Factory Work for Women.....	111
Decision in the Chamizal Case.....	22	An Italian View of American Philanthropy..	112
Guaranteeing Central American Finance.....	22	What Is the Unislay League?.....	113
Investigating the State Department.....	23	The First Italian Theatrical Museum.....	114
Its Organization and Work.....	23	Where Men Should "Play Fair".....	115
Crowning King George V.....	24	Will the Manchu Survive?.....	117
The Imperial Conference.....	28	Is Russia Encouraging Albania's Revolt?....	118
Declaration of London Approved.....	29		
The British Census.....	29		
Parliamentary Changes on the Continent....	30		
The Troubles of Turkey.....	31		
Reduction of the British-Indian Army.....	31		
Training a Shah of Persia.....	32		
With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations			
Record of Current Events.....	33		
With portraits			
Cartoons of the Month.....	37	Notes on Business and Investments.....	119
Sir Wilfrid Laurier.....	41	The New Books.....	123
By ALEXANDER HARVEY		With portraits and map	
With portrait			

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Photograph from the American Press Association, New York

KING GEORGE OF ENGLAND, AND HIS UNCLE, THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT, WHO IS SOON TO TAKE UP HIS DUTIES AS GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA, AS THEY APPEARED IN THE EARLY DAYS OF THE CORONATION FESTIVITIES LAST MONTH

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No. 1

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Will Congress
Continue in
Session?*

The extra session of Congress continues to detain our national lawmakers at Washington in the heat of midsummer. It had been rather freely predicted in the newspapers for some weeks past that when the Senate had been driven to the passage of the Canadian tariff reciprocity law, both Houses would be forced by heat and fatigue to adjourn without completing any other pending business of importance. It is not so certain, however, that this is true. Perhaps the press had conveyed too sanguine an impression on that score.

*Press and
Public In-
formation*

The newspapers of the country, year in and year out, represent public opinion very fairly, and state the principal news of the day with no consciousness of bias. But with all respect to a great profession that plays a leading part among the forces that keep our institutions at work, it would seem as if the press had not quite correctly informed the country of recent movements and situations at Washington. Doubtless the newspapers are entitled to some indulgence. Moreover, these gentle strictures need not apply to any newspaper that knows itself to be blameless. Apparently from beginning to end there has been no sufficient motive behind the tremendous struggle to force this particular tariff bill through Congress in an extra session—that is to say, no motive which could have prevailed over the great obstacles that lay in the way,—excepting the motive supplied by the intense and unanimous demand of the newspapers of the country for free paper and pulp.

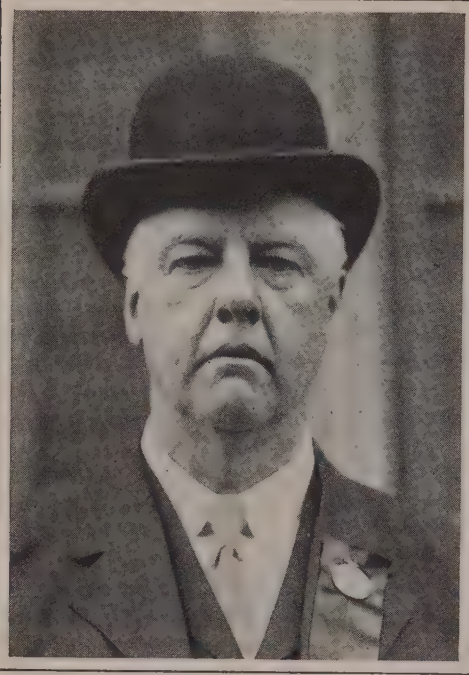
*Why the
Newspapers
Are Fighting*

The Reciprocity bill came forward at an awkward moment. It had been negotiated by a Republican administration at a time when the country had elected a Democratic Congress

and indorsed the idea of a sweeping tariff reform. The Reciprocity bill amends, or rather modifies, the Payne-Aldrich tariff precisely when the Payne-Aldrich tariff has been condemned by the country. To adopt the Reciprocity bill is somewhat like building a beautiful and elaborate new entrance on the north side of your old house at the very time when you have determined to tear down your old house and build a new one on radically different plans. Let no one think, however, that this comment is in harsh criticism of the work of the newspapers in their coöperation with President Taft. Two years before Mr. Roosevelt went out of office—or, rather, in the next to the last of his annual messages—he recommended to Congress the prompt passage of a special tariff bill putting paper and pulp on the free list. The users of print paper complained that they were at the mercy of American trusts and monopolies. Republican leaders in Congress privately expressed a great deal of sympathy with the contention of the newspapers, but declared that to attempt a radical change in one schedule of the Dingley tariff law would open the floodgates for a variety of attempts to change the tariff all along the line. They were told that a general tariff revision would have to follow the Presidential election of 1908.

*Paper in
the Tariff
of 1909*

We will accuse no Republican leader of breaking any pledge or promise; but we may, nevertheless, venture to say that the foremost representatives of the newspaper publishers obtained the impression that when the new tariff was made they would secure access to Canadian pulp, free of duty, and would be able to get their white paper either on the free list or at a very greatly reduced tariff charge. As a matter of fact, the Payne-Aldrich tariff considerably reduced the tariff rate



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MR. HERMAN RIDDER, OF NEW YORK

(Who testified before the Senate Finance Committee on the motives of the newspapers in demanding free pulp and paper and answered questions regarding the alleged instructions given to Washington correspondents)

on the kind of wood pulp that makes ordinary news print, while keeping up the old rate on the kind of pulp that makes paper for magazines and books. A high tariff was kept on white paper itself. If the new Administration had understood the nature and scope of its own power as well two years ago, when the Payne-Aldrich law was being made, as it has learned by experience since that time, we should doubtless have had strong pressure put upon Congress for radical revision of the paper and pulp schedule, the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, and some others,—with the certainty of a veto message and a special session in the early fall of 1909 in case of a failure on the part of Congress to meet the reasonable expectations of the country.

Masterfulness of Presidents

Every President begins by intending to do his own work in the precise constitutional way, and leave Congress to act upon its own judgment and initiative. We have had no more striking example of this than was afforded by President Cleveland, who began with the strictest views as to the nature of a President's duties,—and who, later on, in pursuance of what he believed to be public necessity, developed

into the masterful ruler, laying the heavy hand of authority upon House and Senate. Mr. Taft did not quite realize, in the spring of 1909, that it was for him to formulate and represent the large national point of view. This was for the simple reason that every Congressman and Senator was subjected to so much pressure from his own district or State that it was wellnigh impossible for the two great tariff-making committees to rise to the high demands of the situation. This is not in criticism of Mr. Taft, because his position in 1909 was a perfectly clear one, while his totally different attitude and method in 1911 have grown out of exigencies that are in every way also accountable and clear.

Mr. Taft's Arguments

The best arguments thus far made in favor of the Canadian Reciprocity bill have been made in Mr. Taft's own speeches on that subject. He bothers very little with the intrinsic contents of the pending measure. He says frankly that he would have been very glad, if possible, to have thrown down the tariff wall altogether, and to have had a complete measure of free trade between the Canadian Dominion and the United States. But both sides would have to consent to that; and the Canadians at the present time were not willing to go any farther than they have gone in the pending agreement. But more than this, Mr. Taft holds that we have reached a turning-point in the relationships between the two halves of English-speaking North America. He believes that if we do not take some measure of reciprocity now, we shall not be able to get any agreement in the future, and the interests of Canada will become more closely bound up with those of a great European power. Thus her future progress, which ought to be in close association with her immediate neighbor, would have a tendency to become detached and separate. This is a large view, worthy of great consideration.

Mr. Taft's Tactics with Congress

Mr. Taft was clever and skilful enough to play the Democrats against the Republicans in the short session of the last Republican Congress, and to get his Reciprocity bill brought to a successful vote without being discussed or understood. When the 4th of March came without the bill having been passed through the Senate, Mr. Taft stood unswervingly by the terms of his threat that he would call a special session; and this he did, although every man in both Houses was opposed to the extra session. Now Mr. Taft has brought his

Reciprocity bill where, having quickly passed a Democratic House, it will certainly and easily pass a Republican Senate, entirely unamended, by the aid of Democratic votes. And this will have been accomplished in spite of the fact (generally stated) that not a single member of the United States Senate is privately in favor of adopting that measure at the present time. There is a great deal of prestige that goes with the sheer force and the spirit of relentless domination that succeed in a particular matter contended for. Thus Mr. Taft's fight to carry a reciprocity measure, that no party or faction in Congress believed in or desired upon its intrinsic merits, must rank with the most extraordinary political feats in the history of any American administration.

*Cooperating
Forces*

The Democrats voted for the Reciprocity bill because it helped to batter down the Payne-Aldrich tariff, and because it seemed to be forcing the Republican party into a position of weakness and division. Various Republican leaders, particularly in the Senate, supported the Reciprocity bill, not because they favored it in the least, but because political conditions obliged them to stand with the administration. But the great force that made it possible for Mr. Taft to conquer a reluctant Congress with such audacity and success was the support of the newspapers of the country; and this, of course, he was a good enough politician to have fully understood. The newspapers had felt themselves outraged by the failure of the Payne-Aldrich tariff to give them free paper and pulp, and in their powerful organizations, especially that of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, they had determined to work for the passage of this Reciprocity bill. They had instructed their correspondents at Washington, as was natural enough; and the zeal of the correspondents (so it has been asserted) made it rather hard for the opponents of reciprocity, in the hearings before the committees and in Senate debates, to get any elaborate presentation of their side before the reading public. This again is not meant as any sweeping indictment of the press, because, as we all know, there has been printed in the newspapers a great deal of the dissent of reciprocity opponents.

*A Principle
at
Stake*

Furthermore, we do not accuse the newspapers of conspiring to promote a measure that will simply enable them to buy their paper at a cheaper price. Unquestionably the news-



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SENATOR McCUMBER, OF NORTH DAKOTA

(Who, as a member of the Finance Committee, bitterly opposed reciprocity from the standpoint of Northwestern farmers)

papers believe that they are fighting for a sound principle, and that they have been subjected to very arbitrary conditions. The Free Silver people, in 1896, whether they were right or whether they were wrong, were not, as many people said, fighting for a chance to pay their honest debts in cheap and debased money. They believed they were fighting, not for self-interest, but for a just and fair public policy. The newspapers are not contending so much for cheap paper as for a chance to buy paper under more or less competitive conditions. They do not like to be told exactly what they must pay for paper to a certain large producer, and then upon inquiry discover that they cannot buy any paper from anybody else upon any other terms whatsoever. It has not been fair to say to the newspapers that they should find their redress in the laws against trusts and monopolies. They have had a right to say that when trusts and monopolies are clearly fostered by outgrown tariff conditions, the tariff certainly ought to be changed. Mr. Ridder, recent president of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, gave strong testimony on this point, as did Mr. John Norris, expert for the publishers.

*The
Other
Viewpoint*

It does not follow, on the other hand, that the great paper-making industry of the United States is not entitled to consideration. A vast deal of capital is invested in this industry, and its claims deserve to be considered upon their merits. In our judgment it would have been much better to deal with the paper and pulp question as a part of the general Democratic revision of the tariff than to make it a point of special agreement between Canada and the United States. Similarly, in our judgment, it would be better to deal with articles of agricultural production and consumption as a part of the general tariff revision that the Democrats are undertaking, rather than to preface tariff revision at large by a separate agreement with a particular country. That the Democrats were mistaken in not taking this view may dawn upon them at some future time. But they, too, are bidders for newspaper and public favor; and this deep breach in the high-tariff wall will, as they assert, bring them the sole credit. From their standpoint, President Taft was helpless in the matter except as the Democrats saw a chance to batter down a part of the Payne-Aldrich wall; yet they could not build their own kind of a tariff wall until they had come into full control of the Government. Thus the newspapers, if they get their free paper and pulp, will be deeply indebted to the Democratic party as such. They will also be deeply indebted to President Taft for his purely personal fight. They will not be in the least indebted to the Republican party; for even the Republican contingent that supported the Reciprocity bill did not wish to do so but was politically coerced.

*No
Amendments
Tolerated*

The one great anxiety of the President was to prevent any amendment of the bill in the Senate that might be rejected by the Democrats of the House. A deadlock might mean an ultimate failure of the bill. The only amendment that ran the gantlet of the Finance Committee of the Senate was one proposed by Senator Root, which merely clarifies the section of the bill that relates to paper and pulp. The Root amendment provided that these American products must be admitted into every province of Canada before any of the like Canadian products should be admitted free into the United States. This amendment was reasonable in itself and is not contrary to the intention of the negotiators of the treaty. It was intended to secure the

removal of certain provincial restrictions in Canada as a needful preliminary. Mr. Taft's opposition to the Root amendment was purely a matter of tactics as respects the success of the measure as a whole. The Finance Committee had reported the bill, without recommendation and with the Root amendment, on June 13. It was impossible in the Finance Committee to secure a favorable report on the bill, nor was it possible, in reporting the bill back to the Senate, to secure an adverse report. It was the avowed intention of the Senate leaders who were pushing the measure to devote very little time to its advocacy. They had very little to say in its behalf, because they were not at heart in favor of it, but there were reasons why they had pledged themselves to vote for it. They naturally desired, therefore, to vote at the earliest opportunity and to get the thing out of the way. Others, however, who did not favor the present bill at the present time were determined to express themselves in full in order that the country might have their views and their reasons. It was expected that the bill could be passed at some date not very late in the month of July.

*Growth of the
Executive
Power*

The White House count of Senate votes on Reciprocity gives sixty in favor of the unamended bill on its final passage,—which is about two to one. The accurate information about affairs in Congress nowadays seems to reach the press almost entirely from executive sources. This is an innovation, yet of course it is entirely in the hands of Congress to have matters otherwise if Congress sees fit. It is curious and interesting to observe that the position of the President, as respects parlia-



JUST WAIT UNTIL ULYSSES PUBLIC GETS TO
THE POLLS

(Penelope Canada and her suitors)
From the *Daily Star* (Montreal)



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A TAFT FAMILY GROUP AT THE WHITE HOUSE, ON OCCASION OF THE SILVER WEDDING

(Standing, from left to right: Robert Taft, Miss Herron [sister of Mrs. Taft], Horace D. Taft, Helen Taft, Henry W. Taft, and Charlie Taft. Seated, from left to right: Mrs. Charles Anderson [Mrs. Taft's sister], Mrs. Taft, the President, Aunt Delia Torrey, and Mrs. Henry W. Taft)

mentary programs, grows more and more similar to that of the prime minister of Great Britain, who combines the functions of chief executive with those of master of measures in the Commons. These points of comparison and contrast were sharply brought out, during certain days after the middle of June, by various things going on in London and in Washington. In London, Mr. Asquith was reconstructing the House of Lords, preparing the way for home rule in Ireland, and pushing through Parliament the amazing social legislation brought forward by his right-hand man Chancellor Lloyd-George. Meanwhile, King George V. was the figurehead of the most elaborate and meaningless ceremonies ever witnessed in modern times.

*Some
Contrasts*

One of the American newspapers quite truthfully remarked that if we would understand the functions of the King of England it would be well to note all the things that the American President is able to do in the exercise of his

power, and then to remember that the King of England can do not one of those things. It is the prime minister, Mr. Asquith, who appoints new peers, who chooses judges and bishops, and who alters the constitution by reforming the House of Lords and giving Ireland a parliament. It is one of Mr. Asquith's colleagues who governs India. The position of the King of England is not an absurd one, nor one to be looked upon with disdain. It has great dignity and there is in it the potency of good influence upon the national character. But its governing powers have long since become almost a pure fiction. Those of the Presidency in our country, on the other hand, have waxed ever greater through the stress of circumstances. We have acquired colonial possessions; and the President, through his executive organization, governs them. We are carrying on vast public works, such as the Panama Canal; and the President is in direct authority. We make treaties and carry on important intercourse with foreign countries; and the Presi-

dent does all this through his first member of the cabinet, the Secretary of State. We are regulating the railroad system of the country, and are dealing with great business enterprises by way of controlling interstate commerce; and the initiative in all this vast work is largely in the hands of the President's law officer, the Attorney-General. So vast a governing power as is now exercised by President Taft was never exercised by prince, ruler, or potentate of any great modern country. So great is the power of the President and the executive organization to bless or to curse that it is difficult indeed for the lawmaking body to thwart the President's wishes even when that lawmaking body has been elected by the opposing political party.

*A
White House
Function*

Such are the facts, and we state them not for the purpose of pointing to any conclusion, but only because the spectacle of the coronation in England, so brilliant and so wonderful, could but compel thoughtful people to make note of the differences between the governing systems of the two great English-speaking countries. While the coronation festivities were at their height, a simple and democratic function at the White House was noted with expressions of courtesy and good will from Americans throughout this country, and from the rulers of other nations. This was the celebration of the silver wedding anniversary of President and Mrs. Taft on June 19. All party and political differences were forgotten, and official Washington celebrated the day with a cheerful unanimity. The fathers of both Mr. and Mrs. Taft were distinguished in the public service, and both families lived in Cincinnati, where President Taft announces that he will abide in his future period of retirement, and where also he says that his son Robert will follow the example of father and grandfather, and practice law.

*Will the
Senate Do
Business?*

To come back to the question with which these pages began, What will the Senate do when the Reciprocity bill is passed? First, then, it should be remembered that the Democratic House promptly followed the Reciprocity bill with a so-called Farmers' free list, in order to offset the complaints against reciprocity. The Senate Committee had voted against reporting this free list to the Senate. Furthermore, the Democratic House, by securing harmony in caucus, was able to pass a bill revising the wool tariff, fixing a duty of

20 per cent. upon raw wool and greatly reducing the tariff on woolen manufactures. This bill passed the House on June 20 by a vote of 221 to 100. This in turn was to be followed by a measure revising the tariff schedule on manufactures of cotton, and it was expected that the House would proceed to deal with one or two more tariff schedules. The newspapers had spread the impression throughout the country that there would be no chance of the Senate's considering the farmers' free list, or any other tariff matter, after having passed the Canadian bill.

*Why
the Senate
Must Act*

On June 21, it transpired that this view was incorrect. For the Democrats of the Senate to have acquiesced in this position would have given the country the feeling that the Democratic party is somewhat lacking in sincerity. The opponents of the Canadian bill have included most of the so-called "progressive" Senators, and a number of the Northwestern Republican regulars who are opposed either from the farmers' standpoint or for some other reason. The progressive Senators two years ago voted against the Payne-Aldrich bill, chiefly because of their opposition to the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, and in less degree to one or two other of the sections of the bill. It stands to reason, therefore, that these Senators would be very glad to embrace the opportunity to debate the wool and cotton bills sent over from the other House, and might under certain circumstances be glad to vote, with the Democrats of the Senate, in favor of those measures and in favor of some kind of a farmers' free list, though doubtless they would wish to amend the House bill. If the Democrats of the Senate have the sincerity and conviction of their brethren in the House, they will not acquiesce in the adjournment of Congress until they have made a strong effort to do something with the legislation that the House has been passing. And if the progressive Republican Senators are true to their records,—and there is no possible reason for thinking they will not be thus consistent,—they will have no share in a movement to prevent the Senate from acting upon these matters of tariff revision.

*The
Country's
Mandate*

It is quite true that the Tariff Board can make useful researches, and that under ordinary conditions Congress might wisely await the reports of the board on one schedule after another. And this, of course, is what would happen, in the normal order, if at the polls last Novem-



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SPECIAL SENATE COMMITTEE NAMED TO INVESTIGATE THE LORIMER CASE

(Standing, left to right: William S. Kenyon, Luke Lea, F. H. Pease [clerk], John W. Kern, Wesley L. Jones.

Seated: Robert J. Gamble, Joseph F. Johnston, William P. Dillingham [chairman], Duncan U. Fletcher)

ber the voters of the country had preferred to indorse the position of the Republican party on the tariff. But it so happened that the voters did the opposite thing. They elected a Democratic Congress for the sake of having the Payne-Aldrich tariff energetically overhauled, without reference to the painstaking work of a tariff board. Doubtless the Democratic bills revising the textile schedules are not the ultimate thing; and the work of a tariff board may well help to give us a more complete revision of those schedules at some future time. But Congress knows enough already about a good many of the schedules, including wool and cotton, to justify a sharp reduction of rates, and the country expects it.

*Will Taft
Support the
Democrats?*

Since President Taft has laid a relentless hand upon Congress and compelled it to deal with the Canadian bill, it can be no less than appropriate that Congress should pass up to him a series of bills revising Payne-Aldrich schedules, and giving him the responsibility either of approving them or of vetoing them. He had no possible chance to get his reciprocity measure, except as it became the Underwood

bill, bearing the name of the Democratic chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. Since Mr. Underwood and his friends have given the President his reciprocity, might they not fairly expect that the President in turn would help them to have their wool bill and their cotton bill, and also their free list bill, brought to a successful enactment? There is the more reason for taking this view of it, because it was well known two years ago that Mr. Taft strongly desired the revision of those textile schedules. By a stroke of his hand, Mr. Taft could easily qualify as the logical candidate of the Democratic party for the Presidential nomination next year. He has not been in any sense, on any subject, a partisan President,—his original cabinet containing several Democrats; and he has worked more efficiently and harmoniously with the Democratic party in Congress than he has at any time with the Republicans. All of which goes to show that when practical emergencies arise, our parties have become rather a nominal affair and do not seem to stand out very clearly for contrasting programs. Perhaps we are approaching a period of party reorganization—or perhaps partisanship is outgrown.



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SENATOR LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN

(Whose activity as a leader in the Senate and whose prominence in political affairs have never been so great as at the present time)

*Direct
Election of
Senators*

The other measures importantly before Congress have included the Lorimer question and the subject of the direct election of Senators. A new investigation of the Lorimer case has been ordered, and the scope of it has been due especially to the aggressive position of Senator La Follette. The new committee will bring the matter before the Senate in a thorough way, and there is much reason to believe that the Senate will find that Mr. Lorimer was not properly elected in Illinois and that his seat will be vacated. Whether or not the direct election of Senators would remedy all the difficulties that have grown up about the present method, the popular demand for a change is unmistakable. On June 12 the Senate, by a vote of 64 to 24, adopted the resolution to amend the Constitution so as to authorize the direct election of Senators. It was by an even vote, the Vice-President deciding the question, that Senator Bristow's plan was also adopted. Senator Bristow had presented an amendment which omits the House provision by means of which the power to supervise the election of Senators is transferred from Congress to the States.

*Good Promise
of Cotton
and Wheat*

June is the month in which essential changes are most apt to come in the condition of the crops. Unseasonable heat and drought in that month can do more damage than in other seasons. Thus, the Government crop reports in the early part of June are by no means final, and as a matter of fact there have come, during the past month, disturbing reports of insufficient moisture in the great Southwest. But the promise of the crops on June 1 was sufficiently good to admit of a great deal of qualification before disaster is reached. The cotton crop is estimated by many to yield, if the present acreage and condition are maintained, about 14,000,000 bales, which would be the record of the United States. We raise about 60 per cent. of all the cotton grown in the world, British India contributing 18.3 per cent., Egypt 8 per cent. and Russia 4.7 per cent. The Census Bureau has just published its statistics of the cotton crop for 1910; it was the most valuable ever produced, being worth \$963,180,000,—more than \$150,000,000 in excess of the value of the 1909 harvest. As the 1910 crop with this huge value was only a trifle more than 12,000,000 bales, it will be seen that there is ample margin for a falling-off from the rosy estimate for 1911 before any danger of a short crop appears. For wheat, the June crop report of the Department of Agriculture pointed to a "bumper" yield. The report indicated a harvest for 1911 of 764,000,000 bushels, which would be 68,000,000 bushels in excess of last year. The most flourishing stand of wheat is in the Northwest, and in the Pacific Northwest, especially in Washington and Oregon, all crops are in particularly fine condition.

*Panama Bonds
a Great
Success*

On June 17 the bids were opened for the \$50,000,000 of 3-per cent. Panama bonds offered by the United States to the public,—the first bonds offered on an investment basis since the Civil War, all other bonds issued by our national Government having had an artificial price, due to their availability as security for national bank notes. The question of the relative and absolute credit of the United States has been answered in a very flattering way. Not only did the aggregate bids for the bonds amount to more than three times the issue, but the prices at which they will be allotted indicate that this country has the highest credit of any in the world. Paying 3 per cent., the bonds will apparently be sold at an average price of something more than 102.5, which means that an investor in them



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DEMOCRATIC HOUSE COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING THE STEEL TRUST

(From left to right: Representatives Young, Bartlett, Stanley [chairman], Beall, Littleton, McGillicuddy)

will receive about 2.9 per cent. per annum on his capital. British consols net the purchasers 3.115 per cent., German 3-per cents return 3.61 per cent. and French 3-per cent. rentes about 3.15. Over 10,000 separate bids for the Panama issue were received and it is certain that a majority of the bonds will go to private investors. Individual bids for small portions of the issue ran as high as 105, and the lowest price at which any bonds will be allotted is between 102.25 and 102.40. The bonds are in denominations of \$100, \$500, and \$1000; they are payable in fifty years in gold coin; the interest is payable quarterly, and the securities are exempt from taxation in the United States.

Financing the Canal

From this sale of bonds, the national Treasury will receive something like \$51,250,000 to reimburse it for advances made to pay the current construction bills of the Panama Canal. So far we have actually spent on the Canal \$239,010,516. Of this sum, the general fund of the Treasury has advanced \$151,700,921 over and above receipts from bond sales of \$134,631,980, including the present sale. Congress has authorized a total bond issue for the Panama Canal of \$375,200,980. Thus, with its credit at high water mark among the nations of the earth, with its Treasury working balance, as replenished by the current

bond sale, in excellent shape, the Government's financial program for the great work is clear and easy.

Congress Investigates Trusts

The striking feature of the hearings before the Stanley Committee of the House of Representatives, appointed to investigate the Steel Corporation, was the frankness of Judge E. H. Gary. Judge Gary is the chairman of the executive committee of the Steel Corporation. He defended the action of his company in taking over the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company in 1907, on the ground that this course was necessary to prevent a still more violent panic than actually came, the fact being that some important banking institutions had loaned large sums on Tennessee Coal & Iron stock, which had no ready sale in a panic market. The closing out of the loan on a non-marketable security would have driven to the wall a large Wall Street operator and greatly increased the financial troubles of the day. Nor would Judge Gary admit that the Steel Corporation now fixes the prices of steel products. He was questioned concerning the so-called "Gary dinners," where representatives of the corporation discussed prices with themselves and independents, but resolutely denied that such conferences resulted in a stipulation of uniform prices. When it came to the general subject



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PROMINENT STEEL MEN AT THE HEARING IN WASHINGTON

(From left to right: Mr. N. B. Ream, Judge E. H. Gary, Mr. Percival Roberts and Mr. Richard Lindaburg)

of federal control over corporations, Judge Gary was more radical than his questioners. He not only advocated the full control of corporations by the national Government, preferably under some licensing plan, the license to be revoked if the corporation committed unlawful acts—but went so far as to say that the Government should control the prices of the products of manufacturing corporations. Mr. Gary made a good witness and constantly reiterated his willingness to open to Congress and to the public any of the affairs of the corporation in which they were interested. While the head of the Steel Corporation was offering these advanced ideas concerning the control of “Big Business,” another committee of the House of Representatives had before it Mr. Edward F. Atkins, the acting president of the American Sugar Refining Company, better known as the Sugar Trust. This gentleman admitted that the Sugar Refining Company had in the past been guilty of acts contrary to public policy, but maintained that it was now living a clean life; and that the new officers in control of the company had adopted the policy that the best business interests of the concern demanded honorable service of the public. Mr. Atkins affirmed that the tariff on sugars could

be removed entirely without ruining his company, but that such an action would cripple the beet-sugar industry.

The American Tobacco Decision

On May 29 the Supreme Court of the United States announced its decision in the second of the two great trust cases which have caused so much anxiety to business and finance. Chief Justice White's opinion, in which seven of his eight associates concurred, provided for the dissolution of the American Tobacco Company on the ground that its monopoly of the industry, and the acts by which it had achieved that monopoly, amounted to undue and unreasonable restraint of trade such as is clearly prohibited by the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. The Supreme Court proceeded to furnish a program for the dissolution and reorganization of the American Tobacco Company. The present concern is to go out of business and within six months its heads are to construct, under the supervision of the Circuit Court of Appeals of the Second District of New York, a plan of business reorganization, so that there may be re-created “out of the elements now composing it (the Trust) a new condition, which shall be honestly in harmony with and not repugnant



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HOUSE COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING THE SUGAR TRUST

(From left to right: John E. Raker, Finis J. Garrett, Thomas W. Hardwick [Chairman], Asher C. Hinds, George R. Malby, Edmond H. Madison)

to the law." If six months is found to be insufficient for this task, the American Tobacco Company may have an additional sixty days to complete the reorganization if the Circuit Court of Appeals approves. If the Trust is in the meantime guilty of any of the acts of wrongfully suppressing competition, or if it does not re-create itself within the time allowed and under the supervision prescribed, the business of the concern is to be stopped, either by an injunction against any interstate shipments of its products, or by placing the company in the hands of a receiver. Such was the decision of eight out of the nine judges. Justice Harlan handed down a vigorous minority opinion agreeing with the court's decision only as to the dissolution of the Trust, and dissenting as to the application under the Sherman Law of the test of "reasonableness" in restraint of trade, and declining to consider that the Tobacco Company should be allowed, under the law, to reorganize or to continue its operations in any guise whatsoever.

A Glance at the Tobacco Company

This federal suit against the American Tobacco Company was begun in July, 1910. The defendants named in the bill were sixty-five corporations and twenty-nine individuals. Among the corporate defendants were the

Imperial Tobacco Company, which controls the industry in Great Britain, and the British-American Tobacco Company, which operates in countries outside of America and Great Britain. The old American Tobacco Company was organized in 1890 as a consolidation of the cigarette factories of Allen & Ginter, Duke Sons & Company, the Kinney Tobacco Company, Kimball & Company and Goodwin & Company. But it was not until 1898 that active steps were taken toward effecting the present great combination. In that year the Continental Tobacco Company was formed with a capital of \$75,000,000. It proceeded to absorb most of the plug business in the country. In the same year, the Union Tobacco Company was formed, capitalized at \$10,000,000, in the guise of a rival to the American Tobacco Company; and in 1901 the Consolidated Tobacco Company came into existence with \$30,000,000 capital. It was in 1904 that the present American Tobacco Company was formed by a consolidation of these four huge concerns. The men busy in this ambitious project invaded England in 1901, and after a fierce trade war with the English combination, Ogden's Limited, the British and American concerns patched up a peace and divided the tobacco business of America and Great Britain among themselves. The main allega-



Photographs by Pach, New York

JUDGE NOYES

JUDGE COXE

JUDGE LACOMBE

JUDGE WARD

THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT JUDGES WHO WILL SUPERVISE THE REORGANIZATION OF
THE TOBACCO TRUST

tions of the United States Government against the Trust were that it had by unsparing and destructive methods driven all competition out of existence, abandoning plants of independents it ruined; that it had concealed its ownership of controlled plants and advertised such plants as independent, "intending to mislead, deceive and defraud the public and more effectually cripple existing competitors and keep out new ones." It was charged that the Trust had in certain localities reduced prices of tobacco below the cost of production to ruin the independents, and that in other localities it had bid up the price of raw tobacco above its value for the same purpose of making it impossible for its competitors to do business.

The Reception of the Decision While there are many people of progressive or radical tendencies who preferred Justice Harlan's judgment in this all-important case, the more general view of the country seems to have approved the majority decision of the court. The financial markets signalized the ending of their suspense by a brisk rise in prices and more activity than had been seen for a number of months. The construction of the Sherman statute in such wise as to prevent it from interfering with the fullest contract rights of citizens as long as combinations entered into under these rights effected no unreasonable restraint of trade, sounded fair to the American people. Their approval was reinforced by Justice White's explanation that such a construction of the Sherman

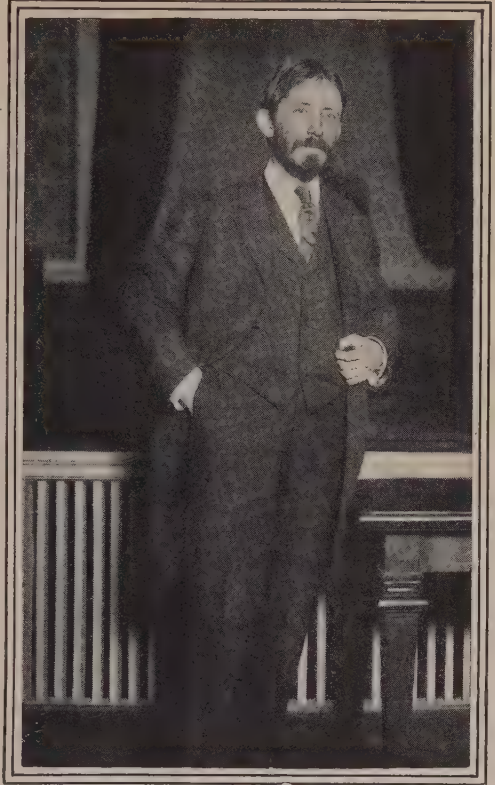
law, while freeing large corporations from its prohibitions as long as they are not working contrary to the public welfare, may actually bring other harmful corporations within the purview of the law, when, as a matter of fact, they might have remained untouched if the strict letter of the statute had been observed, rather than its spirit.

The Future of the Tobacco Company The officers of the American Tobacco Company and its attorneys are busy on the work of planning a reorganization such as will meet the approval of the courts; and a great deal of interest, naturally, is felt in the task that now lies before the Circuit Court of Appeals. For it is believed that the future conduct and fortunes, not only of the Tobacco Company, but of "Big Business" at large, lie very largely in the judgment of these four men. The method and plan which they prescribe for this reorganization will, it is understood, constitute the model on which other large combinations must form or reform themselves to come within the trust law as now interpreted by our judiciary. Thus the personnel of this Circuit Court of Appeals of the Second New York District has suddenly come very prominently into importance in the difficult and complex work of laying down the lines on which the business of the country can be carried on under modern conditions of great aggregations of capital and industrial units without prejudice to the laws and rights of the people. This Circuit Court is composed of four members, Judges

E. Henry Lacombe, Alfred C. Coxe, Walter C. Noyes and Henry G. Ward. The last three were appointed to the bench by President Roosevelt. Judge Lacombe was appointed by President Cleveland in his first administration. Judge Noyes is known as one of the most eminent authorities in America on corporations and corporation law, and as author of the standard work "The Law of Inter-Corporate Relations." Judge Lacombe is a New Yorker of French descent, the son of a merchant of the old school, and a man of strongly conservative tendencies. Judge Ward is a Philadelphian, born in 1851 and appointed by President Roosevelt to the Federal bench in 1907. Judge Coxe, who succeeded Justice Peckham, is a native of New York State, and a graduate of Hamilton, Senator Root's college. He is a man of essentially judicial temperament. For this momentous task of reforming the great business aggregations which have, in the present generation, revolutionized corporate industry in America, we have then four typical and dignified American judges, men of no apparent radical leanings.

*Rapid Transit
for
New York*

It was not until the middle of June that the city of New York, after many months of delay, was definitely assured that an actual solution of the transit problem was in sight. The assurance came in the form of a report of the Board of Estimate's committee, headed by President George McAneny of Manhattan Borough. This committee had held a series of conferences with the Public Service Commission and had given much time and thought to the various offers made by representatives of the existing transportation lines. Perhaps it is not too much to say that no other municipality in the world has before it at this time so serious a problem as the question of rapid transit for the five millions of people who live on Manhattan Island and in the contiguous territory. For the city of New York the creation of an adequate transportation system is a matter of far greater moment than is the building of the Panama Canal for the United States Government. The canal will have cost the Government about \$375,000,000. For the completion of the New York subway system on the plans of the McAneny report an investment of \$257,000,000 will be required, of which the city itself will be called upon to furnish \$131,000,000 or considerably more than one-third of the entire cost of the Panama Canal, which is, of course, a national enterprise; but



PRESIDENT GEORGE M'ANENY, OF MANHATTAN
BOROUGH
(Head of the New York Board of Estimate's Committee
on Rapid Transit)

to meet this relatively large outlay the city can count on a greatly increased margin of credit within the next five years as the result of increases in the assessed valuation of taxable property, while the natural increase in population will, it is estimated, add 70 per cent. to the traffic within ten years. In other words, by the year 1920, there should be added to the receipts of the transportation lines a billion five-cent fares per annum,—a round \$50,000,000.

*What it
Means to
the City*

The public has never been concerned so much about the financial aspects of the New York subway scheme as about the details of routes and transfers. There has been an insistent demand for direct access from the southern portion of Brooklyn to Broadway, the business artery of Manhattan, while the completion within a few years of the Queensboro Bridge has given rise to a similar demand from Queen's Borough. At the same time the crowded population of Manhattan has called for a five-cent fare through Brooklyn

to the ocean. In considering an enlarged transportation system for the whole city the McAneny committee and the Public Service Commission received propositions from the company operating the existing subways and from the company controlling the elevated and surface lines in Brooklyn. Each company wished valuable concessions from the city and as offsets the committee formulated certain requirements. In the event of either company refusing to comply with these requirements the city is in a position to hand over the privileges to its rival, and if both companies decline the obligation the city may itself proceed to build a line connecting Manhattan, Brooklyn, and the Bronx. The existing subway company opposes the entrance of the Brooklyn company into Manhattan territory, while the Brooklyn company is dissatisfied with the requirement that there shall be a single five-cent fare to Coney Island. The committee in its report recommends both propositions.

*Coördination
and
Extension*

Many extensions and links of both elevated and subway lines are proposed and allotted to each company. The companies are to operate the lines under leases running forty-nine years, the net profits to be divided equally between the city and the operating company in each case. The city reserves the right, however, to take over, after ten years of operation, if it so elects, the line or lines covered by such operating contracts, upon the payment by the city of the amount invested by the operating company in construction and the full value of the equipment. The report was generally accepted, last month, as a masterly grappling with a most difficult and complex situation. The committee's method had been a thoroughly practical one from start to finish. Beginning with existing lines it has sought to coördinate them into a single system and the proposed extensions are in the direction of unification and economy of operation. Never before has the metropolis, or any other American city, faced a great municipal undertaking in a more statesmanlike way.

*State
Legislation*

Most of the State legislatures that began their sessions in January have concluded their labors for the current year. The Illinois lawmakers, having failed to enact a Waterways bill, were recalled by Governor Deneen in special session last month. In Ohio, a bribery scandal involving many members of both houses

cast its shadow over the closing month of the session and almost threw into eclipse a very fair record of legislative achievement, including the enactment of a Public Service Commission bill, a Workingman's Compensation act, and the requirement of a nine-hour day for employed women. The first evidence against the bribe-takers was secured by detectives and was so convincing that a number of confessions resulted. Several indictments have been returned by the grand jury. The Connecticut Legislature debated a Public Service Commission bill similar to the Ohio measure, but on June 15 action in the lower house effectually blocked its passage during the current session. The Wisconsin Legislature passed a bill submitting a woman suffrage amendment to popular vote. In Massachusetts a direct primary law was enacted.

The commission form of city government continues to gain ground throughout the country, although here and there it meets with an occasional setback. The most important advance of the past month was the appointment, by Governor Tener, of nine business and professional men to serve as commissioners under the new charter of Pittsburg, Pa., succeeding the city councilmen turned out of office by the operation of the charter bill. Of these nine commissioners appointed by the Governor of Pennsylvania, not one is a politician in the ordinary sense of the word, although all nine are said to represent the choice of Senator Penrose, Governor Tener, and the State Republican organization. The successors to these appointed commissioners will be elected at large next year. As great public projects are under way in Pittsburg, it was important that the government of the city should be in the hands of representative citizens. On June 5 the voters of Mobile, Ala., which has recently celebrated its bicentenary, adopted the commission form of government by a substantial majority. During the two hundred years of its history, the city of Mobile has lived under five flags, —French, Spanish, British, the Stars and Stripes, and the Stars and Bars. During the past twenty years the city has increased rapidly in population, and with a progressive form of government it should have an active and prosperous future. Last month the cities of Norwich, Ct., Lansing, Mich., and Bayonne, N. J., rejected the commission plan by popular vote. Bayonne was the first of the New Jersey cities to take action under the provisions of the law passed by the

legislature last winter. On June 20 Trenton adopted the plan by a substantial majority. Similar votes will soon be taken in other cities of the State.

*Governor
Wilson's
Indorsement*

The New Jersey law had been heartily advocated by Governor Wilson as a measure of practical reform, and since its passage he has more than once taken occasion to urge the cities of the State to avail themselves of its provisions. Speaking at Trenton a few days before the special election on the question, he told the people that he had found the system of commission government working successfully in many cities, and that he saw great promise in it for the redemption of municipal politics in this country. Our complicated political machinery, as manipulated by bosses in nearly all American cities, has made it possible for the professional politician, as Governor Wilson put it, to "play hide-and-seek with the voter year after year." Under commission rule, he said, there could be no trading and no deal by the bosses, whereas under the present system it is almost necessary to resort to intrigue in order to get action of any kind.

*The
Recall*

Meanwhile, the referendum, the initiative, and the recall,—political devices employed for several years in Oregon and a few other States,—are now receiving more attention throughout the country than ever before. The debates in Congress over the Arizona constitution have served to arouse public interest in the recall, particularly as applied to the judiciary. The House has voted to qualify its consent to Arizona's admission as a State by referring the question of the recall of the judiciary to the voters a second time. At the same time the fact is recognized that New Mexico's proposed constitution is made especially difficult to amend, and the House has again referred that document to popular vote. Some of New Mexico's voters are already repenting of their haste in adopting a constitution in which they now find many defects. Of the two, it seems clear that Arizona has adopted a better frame of government, and even those members of the House who were bitterly opposed to the recall feature did not go so far as to demand the rejection of that feature as a condition to the admission of Arizona. Many members of both House and Senate agree with President Taft in opposing the recall as applied to the judiciary, but are quite willing to leave

the recall of administrative officers to the voters of the new State.

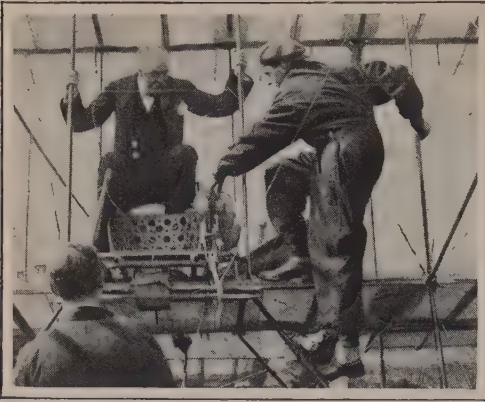
*The
"Impatient"
American Spirit* A note of opposition to the widespread demand for the "people's rule" was voiced at the Williams College commencement, last month, by President Garfield, who characterized the modern spirit of American politics in these words:

We mistake popular desire for popular will. If our Legislature moves too slowly, we prod it with the initiative; if it pursues a course contrary to expectation we curb it with the referendum. In our impatience we recall executives and even propose to violate the sanctuary of justice and drag judges from the bench because, daring to consider and to know, they render decisions contrary to popular feeling.

Unquestionably President Garfield has expressed very clearly a prevalent sentiment regarding reform movements in politics, but the public impatience of which he makes complaint is no mere ebullition of radicalism. Neither are the men who are taking the lead in the various States and cities in attempts to replace the old boss-ruled machines with something like popular government mere political theorists. One of the chief exponents of this phase of reform at the present moment happens to be a life-long student of politics who sees in the referendum, the initiative, and the recall practical expedients for ridding the communities of his own State of conditions that had become intolerable. The "impatience" that Governor Wilson represents is of the righteous kind,—the natural outcome of long suffering under extreme provocation to wrath.

*Great Air
Races in
Europe*

The two prominent features of aerial navigation recently have been the long cross-country races in Europe and the number of deaths and other accidents. The great International Circuit Race—Paris to London—begun on June 19, was especially unlucky, three men being killed on the first day. Le Martin lost control of his Bleriot almost immediately after starting and the machine was flung to earth and the aviator killed. Captain Princeteau, an army aviator ordered to accompany the racers, was burned through the explosion of the petrol tank of his aeroplane, and a similar fate befell Landon. A number of other aviators fell early in the race and were more or less badly injured. Of thirty-nine original starters, sixteen finished the first leg of the course at Liege, a distance of 212 miles, the first to



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RT. HON. ARTHUR BALFOUR IN GRAHAME-WHITE'S
AEROPLANE, AT HENDON, ENGLAND

arrive being Vidart, who made the trip in the fast time of 3 hours and 13 minutes. The course was from Paris to Liege, to Liege Spa, to Utrecht, Brussels, Roubaix, Calais, Brighton, London, and back to Calais, Amiens, and Paris, the distance being about 950 miles, arranged in nine stages. The Paris-Rome-Turin race, begun on May 28, was the longest of the international races, the course covering 1300 miles. Twenty-nine competitors entered. Many of these suffered mishaps early in the race, but nothing more serious than the "breaking of wood"—as it is termed. Garros,—who will be remembered by Americans as the driver of the little *Demoiselle* at Belmont Park and elsewhere in the United States—led for a portion of the race, but Andre Beaumont (Lieutenant Conneau) beat him to Rome, winning \$20,000 and being knighted by King Victor Emmanuel. Following Beaumont to Rome, in the order named, came Garros, Frey, and Vidart. The third stage of the race (from Rome to Turin) was dangerous, owing to the lack of landing places in the Appennines and the necessity of sustaining a continuous flight of two hours over mountains. The only contestant to attempt this stage of the course was Frey, the German, who started out in spite of warnings. When a few miles out of Rome, he drove into a heavy fog and a storm of rain and hail, got off his course, lost control of his machine, and finally fell into a ravine, the machine being wrecked and the aviator breaking both arms and a leg.

Paris to
Madrid by
Aeroplane

A few weeks earlier occurred the Paris-to-Madrid race. This was the contest that was ushered in by the accident in which the French Minister of War Berteaux was killed and Premier

Monis seriously injured. In the first leg of the course, from Paris to Angoulême, 279 miles, Vedrine made the record-breaking time of 3 hours, 43 minutes,—the Paris-Angoulême express, by the way, takes 5 hours and 18 minutes to make the trip. Vedrine was also the first to reach Madrid, where he received a tremendous popular ovation, was presented to King Alfonso, and won a prize of \$20,000. His actual flying time for the whole distance of about 766 miles was 12 hours, 18 minutes. Several aviation meets have recently been held in Germany, also, notably the Upper Rhine Flight on May 26, and the National Circuit race on June 13. A remarkable feat was that of Lieutenant Menard, who made a tour with a passenger in a new army aeroplane from Mourmelon to Poitiers, a distance of 373 miles in 9 hours, 15 minutes, making a new distance and duration record with a passenger. While the recent aeroplane contests have been accompanied by a crop of smashups and other accidents to men and machines, the dirigibles also have been hit hard during the last few months. The magnificent new *Deutschland II*, Zeppelin's latest creation, came to grief shortly after it was launched, as did also the British military Lebaudy and the *Naval Airship No. 1*, as well as the *Parseval II*.

Flying and
Polo in
America

While no large meets have recently been held in America, there has been a good deal of flying in various parts of the country, and both Curtiss and the Wrights are continually exhibiting in different cities. Arrangements are being made for a large aviation gathering in Chicago from August 12 to 20, at which President Taft is expected to be present. The great activity of other governments in acquiring aerial fleets has called attention to our own backwardness in this respect. The three new aeroplanes contracted for by the Navy Department for delivery the first of this month, however, will serve as the nucleus of an American fleet. An interesting combination of aerial and field sport took place on Long Island last month, when St. Croix Johnstone, in his monoplane, appeared over the grounds of the Meadowbrook Club during the international polo matches. Johnstone sent down a shower of flowers and a message of congratulation to the winning team. These polo matches last month attracted a brilliant gathering of many thousands of people. The American team was successful in retaining the cup.

*Prospects of
Reciprocity
at Ottawa*

When the Canadian Parliament reassembles on the twentieth day of the present month, the government, backed by its majority of forty votes in the Commons, will make a determined effort to put through the reciprocity agreement. It was believed, last month, that the United States Senate would reach a vote on this measure about July 15. If a favorable vote has been taken on this side of the line when the Dominion Parliament meets, the leaders at Ottawa expect to have no difficulty in enacting the agreement into law. If, however, the opposition continues its obstructive tactics, Minister Fielding, who has been in charge of the government case during Sir Wilfrid Laurier's absence at the coronation of King George, declares that Parliament will be dissolved and an appeal made to the electorate. This would probably mean a new general election in September. As we pointed out last month in these pages, it does not seem likely that a new election will be held until the results of the recently taken Dominion census have been announced and a rearrangement of electoral divisions made. This would not be until after the regular adjournment in November.

*How the
Country Looks
at It*

The coming reapportionment of Parliamentary seats will undoubtedly increase the representation of the western provinces, where the greatest growth of population has been. They will gain, it is believed, more than thirty seats. The West is almost solid for reciprocity, so that an election in the fall would be equivalent to a certainty of reciprocity passing in the new Parliament. On the other hand, if we are to accept the judgment of Sir James Whitney, conservative Premier of the Province of Ontario, all Eastern conservative Canada, particularly Ontario, is opposed to it. The Nova Scotia provincial elections, held on June 14, resulted in a victory for the government, which carried twenty-seven of the thirty-eight seats in the province. This election was the first held in Canada since the proposals for reciprocity with the United States were presented, and the results of the balloting show the drift of public feeling on the measure, as reciprocity was the principal issue debated during the campaign.

*The Eminence
of
Laurier*

Sir Wilfrid Laurier is one of the most eminent of living statesmen of English-speaking countries. His native tongue being French, not English, this eminence is all the more notable. At

the Imperial Conference, that general family gathering of Britain's colonies, which met for its second quadrennial session in London, on May 23, and continued its sessions throughout last month, Sir Wilfrid took a prominent part, and was recognized as one of the most significant figures in its deliberations. He was the dean of the visiting Premiers. "I have the happy privilege," he said, "of representing on this occasion a country which has no grievances to set forth and very few suggestions to make. We are quite satisfied with our lot. We are happy and prosperous . . . but we approach with open minds the suggestions which have been made by our colleagues for what they conceive to be the better interests of the British Empire."

*His
Imperial
Ideas*

Sir Wilfrid's stand was for unrestricted autonomy for all the colonies. On the other hand, he stoutly opposed a resolution presented by Premier Fisher, of Australia, regretting that the colonies were not consulted before England had accepted the Declaration of London. It is the opinion of the Canadian premier that the colonies should not be consulted about any treaties other than commercial ones. All other matters, he believes, should be left to the government at London. In his opinion, the obligation to consult the colonies in matters which later might provoke a war, would be likely to expose them to the charge of taking part in that war. Sir Wilfrid approved the Declaration, which has been very favorably received in Canada, believing it to be a decided step toward universal understanding. He also, speaking for himself and for the Dominion, strongly commended the efforts of President Taft and Sir Edward Grey in the direction of universal arbitration. Premier Laurier's distinguished career is of much interest and significance to the American people, and we are glad to present to our readers this month (on page 41) a sketch of his brilliant personality and a summing up of the main facts of his public life.

*The
Effacement of
Diaz*

When, on May 25, the letter of General Porfirio Diaz, resigning his office as President of Mexico, was read to the Chamber of Deputies, the respectful, attentive silence of the legislators and the visitors present indicated that, however "Diazism" may have been repudiated by the Mexican people, Diaz the man personally still retains their admiration and affection. There was considerable personal dignity and a touch of pathos in the docu-



GENERAL DIAZ BIDDING GOOD-BY TO MEXICO
(From a snapshot taken on May 31, as he was leaving Vera
Cruz for Spain. Díaz is the figure with upturned
face in the center)

ment in which General Díaz laid down the power which he held in Mexico for more than a generation. Broken in health, this man of eighty-one, deserted by his political friends and widely assailed as the cause of the revolution and the dissension that has torn his country asunder, announced that he bowed to the will of his countrymen. This document, which was the last official act of the strong man of Mexico, the dictator with the title of President, read:

SEÑORES: The Mexican people, who have generously covered me with honors, who proclaimed me as their leader during the international war, who patriotically assisted me in all works undertaken to develop industry and the commerce of the republic, establish its credit, gain for it the respect of the world and obtain for it an honorable position in the concert of nations; that same people has revolted in armed military bands, stating that my presence in the exercise of the supreme executive power was the cause of this insurrection.

I do not know of any facts imputable to me which could have caused this social phenomenon;

but permitting [a Spanish locution meaning "acknowledging as possible"] though not admitting, that I may be unwittingly culpable, such a possibility makes me the least able to reason out and decide my own culpability.

Therefore, respecting, as I have always respected, the will of the people and in accordance with Article 82 of the Federal Constitution, I come before the supreme representatives of the nation in order to resign, unreservedly, the office of Constitutional President of the republic with which the national vote honored me, which I do with all the more reason since in order to continue in office it would be necessary to shed Mexican blood, endangering the credit of the country, dissipating its wealth, exhausting its resources and exposing its policy to international complications.

I hope, gentlemen, that, when the passions which are inherent to all revolutions have been calmed, a more conscientious and justified study will bring out in the national mind a correct acknowledgment, which will allow me to die carrying engraved in my soul a just impression of the estimation of my life, which throughout I have devoted and will devote to my countrymen.

With all respect,

PORFIRIO DIAZ.

Enter
the New
Régime

Before a break had occurred in the awed silence with which this letter was received, Deputy José Aspe, one of the most brilliant orators of the Chamber, arose and delivered an eulogium on the life and work of Díaz, which closed, amid loud cheers, with these words: "President Porfirio Díaz is dead! Long live citizen Porfirio Díaz!" The resignation of Vice-President Corral, now in Europe, was then read, and both were accepted. The firing of cannon and ringing of church bells throughout the city announced that the revolution had triumphed. Señor Madero at once resigned the office of Provisional President and Señor Francisco Leon de la Barra was formally chosen for that office with universal sanction. Señor Alfredo Dominguez, personal representative of the revolutionary leader, Madero, assumed control of the government troops. He at once took measures for controlling the discontented elements of the capital city, and rigorously put down any riotous demonstrations. Official peace throughout the country followed the signing, on May 21, of a regular agreement. A number of insurrecto chieftains, principal among them being General Figueroa, at first declined to agree to the leadership of Madero, but finally gave in their adhesion, and a new era had begun in Mexico. Madero asked all his followers to assist him and de la Barra, to whom office had been given "solely with the idea that he might serve his country as an intermediary between the despotic government of General Díaz and the eminently popular government which will result from the coming general

elections." To the country at large he issued a long statement asking that order be restored and that the peaceful progress of real constitutional government be initiated. To the soldiers who had followed him through the hardships of the campaign he said:

You who retire to private life are armed with a new weapon which you have conquered—the vote. Use liberally that powerful weapon, and very soon you will see that it is proportionately a more important and durable victory than that which your rifle has given you.

*Preparing
to Choose a
President*

Several days later Señor Madero made his intended journey from the northern boundary to the capital city. This was a continuous triumph, ending on June 7, when he was received with even greater expressions of popular devotion and respect, it is reported, than had ever been given to Diaz. Just a few hours before his arrival, a violent earthquake shock caused much destruction to life and property in the capital. 172 persons were killed and many buildings wrecked. It is significant of the hold which the revolution has taken on the masses of the Mexican people that neither the loosening of the iron hand of Diaz nor the terrible calamity of the earthquake was taken advantage of, to any serious extent, by the rougher elements of the capital to create disorder. Several small riotous demonstrations were soon suppressed. Provisional President De la Barra has announced that the general election will take place on October 8. It is believed that he and Madero will be the chief candidates, although several other names have been mentioned, including that of General Geronimo Trevino, the choice of the so-called Constitutional party. Nothing was wanting to remove all serious obstacles from the path of the triumphant revolutionary party under the leadership of Señor Madero, except the possible opposition of that reactionary soldier, General Bernardo Reyes. This was removed on June 10, when, at a conference between De la Barra, Madero, and Reyes, the former war minister under Diaz gave public notice that he declined to be a candidate for the presidency; that he would be Minister of War in Madero's cabinet; and that he was in complete sympathy with the revolution. Madero has promised real freedom of the press and of public speech, and has expressed his fixed intention to put down all forms of lawlessness, and to insure honesty and self-government in a sense not hitherto understood in Mexico. The new government has a clear field and a rare opportunity.

*The Retirement
and Aims
of Diaz*

Early on the morning of the day following his resignation, the aged Diaz secretly left the capital, and was taken by a special train, heavily guarded, to Vera Cruz, the gulf port of Mexico City, whence he departed for Spain on May 31 by way of Havana, with the intention of spending the remainder of his life in Madrid. Upon his arrival at Santander, on June 18, he received a splendid ovation. The aged statesman made a public statement regarding the Mexican situation, in the course of which he said:

I have sacrificed myself and given up the struggle, convinced that I am giving better proof of abnegation and devotion to my country by abandoning the reins of government and transmitting them to others, with the political situation by no means desperate, with the army, which, while not numerous, is unconquered, and with the treasury, which, despite heavy campaign expenses in the last six months, still holds 62,000,000 pesos. All I ask for my declining years is to spend them in tranquillity in the bosom of my family. I have broken all the bonds which hold me to Mexico, and even if I were asked I would not return to take part in the politics of the country. Only some international difficulty necessitating a supreme effort on the part of all Mexicans in a close union could make me alter my decision; but if such an eventuality arose nothing could stop me from going to the end of my life—as in the first years of my manhood—rifle in hand.

*The New Order,
from a Business
Standpoint*

The chances of permanency for the new régime are apparently good. In this connection we take pleasure in quoting the following sentences from a letter we have received from an American of long residence in Mexico, whose business interests are considerable, and of such a nature as to be dependent, to an unusual degree, upon political and governmental stability.

As far as I can learn the business interests, except those closely allied with the clique which has just gone out of power, regard the revolution as not only a complete success, but as a permanent step in advance. The new government is, at present, devoting all its energies to the complete pacification of the country and the restoration of order, and as soon as that is accomplished, their attention will be devoted to the reorganization of the entire system, to the end of greater honesty in administration of public affairs and the establishment of a real democratic form of government. It is expected that the general elections will be held in the month of October. The net result of the whole affair of the last six months, to my mind, is the throwing off of tyranny and corruption and an honest endeavor to adhere to the constitution and the laws, to make democracy a fact and to eliminate corrupt practices. The new president and cabinet are serious, honorable men, many of whom have sacrificed personal interests for the public good in accepting the heavy task which has fallen to them.

*The Chances
of Foreign
Capital*

This represents the point of view of the conservative, fair-minded American, whose business interests are not based upon advantages unfair to the Mexican people. Undoubtedly among the political and economic reforms that have already marked the beginning of the new régime, foreign capital, which is so largely American, will be more restricted and controlled than formerly. Indeed, it is to be hoped for the sake of the foreign investor, as well as the Mexican people themselves, that there will be less of the undue influence formerly exercised in the securing of concessions. The new Governor, Gonzales, of the State of Chihuahua, declared last month that under the new régime foreign concessions, which might be regarded as monopolies, will not be extended or renewed, and that every legal effort will be made to restrict foreign monopolies in the state. Other states are following the example of Chihuahua. Undoubtedly foreigners, including Americans, said Governor Gonzales further, who "profited so greatly under the Diaz régime, which permitted the shameless exploitation of the country, will be hard hit by the new era, but the determination to upbuild Mexico and to improve conditions for her poverty-stricken people will, I am sure, receive the hearty support of the great body of Americans."

*Good Feeling
Toward
Americans*

The excellent impression made by the statements of President Taft, and by the moderate and friendly way in which the Mexican situation has been handled by our own State Department and our army, has permeated apparently to all classes of the Mexican people. Señor Madero, in commenting last month upon the gradual withdrawal of the American troops from the Texas border, publicly declared that he had not been aided in the slightest degree by American capital. "Not one American dollar has helped in the triumph of the cause I lead." On reaching Europe ex-President Diaz said to an interviewer that he wished the American people to understand he had not the slightest feeling against the United States, whose attitude has been "dignified, unselfish, and generous throughout, always indicating a desire to prevent complications and to seek the highest good for all."

*Decision in
the Chamizal
Case*

It is interesting to note here that a decision has at last been reached in the Chamizal boundary dispute between the United States and Mexico. On June 15 the International

Arbitration Court, which had been sitting at El Paso for a month, discussing the ownership of some 600 acres of land, involving seven millions of dollars of property, and inhabited by 6000 people, rendered a decision. The dispute arose out of a change in the course of the Rio Grande seventeen years ago. 'Mexico was represented by one arbitrator, and the United States by one, with a Canadian jurist to make up the necessary third. The arbitrators gave part of the land to Mexico and part to the United States. In substance, the commissioners found that up to a certain point the lands on the El Paso side of the river grew by accretion, but that at another period there was a sudden "cut off" by the river of a considerable portion of Mexican territory. "The lands gained by accretion belong to America; the lands suddenly cut off from Mexico belong to the latter country." From this decision, which is a compromise, both countries have dissented and it seems probable that the case will be reargued.

*Guaranteeing
Central Ameri-
can Finance*

The treaty with Nicaragua, signed last month, the one concluded with Santo Domingo four years ago, and the pending treaty with Honduras, clearly establish the outlines of a coherent policy toward the smaller, less stable republics of Central America and the West Indies that has been the result of the wise, progressive statesmanship of our recent national history. To render workable, in the terms of modern statesmanship, the provisions of the Monroe Doctrine, and to guarantee the financial stability of those Latin-American countries with which we come into close contact, without incurring even the suspicion of attempting to interfere with their domestic affairs, has been a delicate problem, calling for a high order of statesmanship. The first years of the twentieth century have seen a new attitude toward our Latin-American neighbors, and, in general, it may be said, a clearer understanding on the part of these nations, of the fact that the United States has no territorial ambitions, no intention to exert undue influence, only a desire to help the smaller American republics to a higher level of national life. With their financial stability and autonomy guaranteed, these little republics can have opportunity to work out for themselves their own form of republicanism undisturbed by foreign navies, and almost without internal strife. The United States now guarantees the financial integrity of Santo Domingo. For three years an Ameri-

can has supervised the collecting of customs of that republic, turning over 55 per cent. to the foreign bondholders, and 45 per cent. to the Dominican Government. An official of that country is reported to have recently remarked that under the new arrangement the Dominican Government realizes from this 45 per cent. a larger sum than it received when its own corrupt officials collected 100 per cent.

*How
It
Works*

The republics of Cuba and Panama enjoy their own independent government, without interference from us, while, at the same time, they have their financial stability protected and assured. It was principally the United States which, three years ago, aided Venezuela in ridding herself of that international nuisance, General Cipriano Castro, who had successfully looted the country for years. The rumor, last month, that Castro was about to return resulted in the foreign holders of bonds and Venezuela herself agreeing that the United States should prevent him from landing anywhere near his native country, on the ground that he was an undesirable citizen. The treaties with Nicaragua and Honduras are similar to, although not identical with, our treaty with Santo Domingo. The agreement with Nicaragua was signed on June 6, and still awaits ratification by the Senate. Both it and the treaty with Nicaragua, now pending in the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, provide for the appointment of a fiscal agent to collect the customs revenues, such agent to be the joint appointee of the United States and the other nation affected.

*The Cases of
Nicaragua and
Honduras*

Nicaragua and Honduras have large foreign debts on which the interest has been steadily defaulted for years. Secretary Knox has secured the services of two American experts, who have been retained as financial advisers by these countries. It is now proposed to float loans to liquidate the foreign obligations, with liens on the customs receipts to secure them. The part of the United States government is to enter into agreement with other governments whose citizens have bona fide claims against Nicaragua and Honduras, and to arrange for the gradual settlement of those claims. There has been some opposition and a great deal of newspaper talk arising from the fact that the banking house of J. P. Morgan and Company has offered to finance the Honduran bond issue. Furthermore, a number of Senators regard such treaties (to quote Senator Bacon of Georgia) as "having the

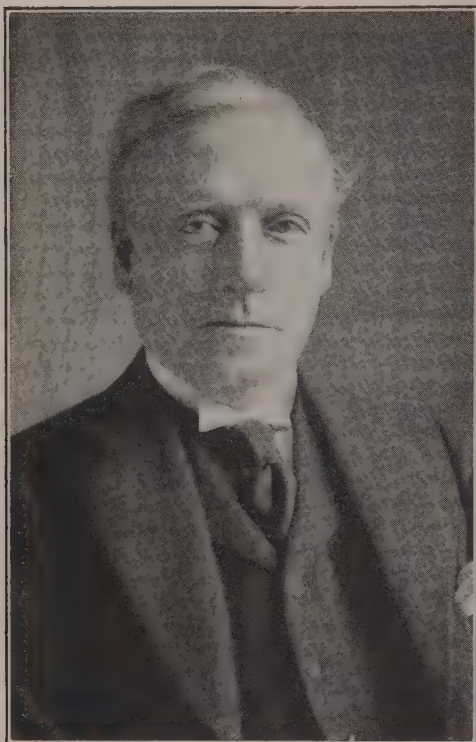
necessary effect of compelling us to practically take over control of those Latin countries one after another." With the satisfactory experience of the Santo Domingo case in view, however, there seems to be no real reason for doubting that control over and interference in the affairs of Latin American countries would be avoided by the policy indicated by the new treaties.

*Investigating
the State
Department*

These results of the so-called "dollar diplomacy" in "substituting economic prosperity for predatory strife" as a basis for the administration of government in the smaller republics of Central America have gone far toward commending to the American people the work of the State Department. The majority of Americans, we believe, will agree with President Taft and Secretary Knox that "the field of diplomacy does properly include commerce and the increase of trade relations." They hold, with the President, that "while our foreign policy should not be turned a hair's breadth from the straight path of justice, it may be well made to include active intervention to secure for our merchandise and our capitalists opportunity for profitable investment, which shall inure to the benefit of both countries concerned." There has been some criticism of the State Department for its course toward certain small Central American states, and, last month, considerable newspaper discussion was aroused over an alleged irregularity connected with payment made some years ago for a portrait of William R. Day, then Secretary of State (now Associate Justice of the Supreme Court). These criticisms, however, have had nothing to do with the investigation of the State Department which has been going on for some months. A standing committee of Congress has been investigating all the departments of the Government, and the State Department has merely taken its turn.

*Its
Organization
and Work*

A detailed outline of the organization and work of the Department, recently issued by the direction of the Secretary, summarizes the origin and evolution of this branch of our governmental service from its beginnings down to the year 1909. The growth of the Department, following the normal development and expansion of the country, is indicated by the appropriation made in 1791, the first year of its history, which was slightly over \$49,000, and that of the year 1909, which was over \$206,000. During the past two years a thorough



THE REAL RULER OF GREAT BRITAIN, WHO WAS
NOT CROWNED LAST MONTH
(The Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, the Premier)

reorganization of the Department has been effected, until it is now on a basis that makes it possible to conduct, smoothly and effectively, the foreign business, diplomatic and commercial, of the United States Government, which is not only in intimate relations with twenty other American republics, but has at its capital more diplomatic representatives of foreign countries than there are in any other capital of the world. Certain archaic methods of accounting have been in vogue in the State Department. These methods are now in process of being changed. It is proper to note here that, despite its weak points and drawbacks, the reorganized Department of State, in the opinion of an American expert upon business methods, "so far from needing much expert assistance, is in the position to set an example as to fundamentals of organization and methods for many large business corporations."

Americans are always interested in the coronation of British sovereigns as a splendid, impressive pageant. There is no feeling that monarchy dominates the ceremony, as might be the case in Russia, or even in Germany. We know

that the British people, in their ideas and mental attitude, are as democratic as ourselves. When, therefore, on the 22d of last month, George V. was formally crowned King of Great Britain and Ireland, with impressive ceremonies in Westminster Abbey, the many Americans and other foreign visitors who were present felt they were witnessing, not the official, formal confirmation of one man to rule over others, but simply a gorgeous ceremonial pageant on the part of a self-governing people to mark the induction into office of what one great Englishman has called Britain's life president. The reports of eye witnesses indicate that the multitudes of Britons present on that occasion also regarded the celebration chiefly as a gorgeous show performance. The religious significance of the assumption of the crown and the ancient custom of anointing a king has apparently been lost sight of in the pomp and pageantry of the ceremonial.

*Significance
of the
Rite*

Englishmen themselves regard the occasion as a public dedication of the sovereign to the service of the realm over which he nominally rules. In reality he will be the amiable and dignified royal figure which British sovereigns have been for a generation, with much less active power in the administration of government than that possessed and exercised by the President of the United States. Now that the ceremony of coronation is over, political and other affairs will go on in Great Britain as they have been doing since the death of King Edward. The Premier, the Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, will be the real ruler of Britain. He will continue to tell Parliament, in the King's name, what it ought to do. He will go on appointing officials, diplomats, and ecclesiastics in the King's name. The Home Secretary will exercise the King's pardoning power in the name of the King, but by the authority of the Premier. The Lord High Chancellor will appoint judges; Mr. Birrell will rule Ireland, and Lord Morley will govern India, all in the King's name, but by the authority of Premier Asquith. The real ruler of Britain will continue to be the Prime Minister. Whatever prerogatives and rights King George possesses, he acquired when he took the oath of office on the death of his father. Undoubtedly he will make an acceptable monarch. He and his amiable consort, Queen Mary, are popular with their people. They have the quiet, sturdy strength of the best that is in British character, and on the whole, are excellent types of the English

*Crowning
King
George V*



Photographs from the American Press Association, New York
THEIR IMPERIAL AND ROYAL MAJESTIES, KING GEORGE V. AND QUEEN MARY OF ENGLAND, WHO
WERE CROWNED LAST MONTH IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY



Photograph from the American Press Association, New York
THE BRITISH ROYAL FAMILY TAKING THEIR USUAL CARRIAGE RIDE



Photograph from the American Press Association, New York

THE CHAIR OF STATE IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY



Photograph from the American Press Association, New York

WESTMINSTER ABBEY, IN WHICH BRITAIN'S MONARCHS ARE CROWNED



THE EARL OF CADOGAN



THE DUCHESS OF PORTLAND



Photographs copyright by the American Press Association, N. Y.
THE DUCHESS OF HAMILTON



LORD ROSEBERY

SOME OF THE NOTED PERSONALITIES WHO WERE SEEN ON LONDON STREETS DURING THE
CORONATION FESTIVITIES LAST MONTH



Photograph from Brown Bros., New York.

ADMIRAL TOGO AND GENERAL NOGI, TWO OF THE MOST INTERESTING PERSONALITIES AT THE CORONATION

lady and gentleman. The coronation ceremonies extended over all of last month and a part of May. There were many vast historical pageants, and the unveiling of a number of important monuments, including the Victoria Memorial in front of Buckingham Palace, which we described and pictured in our issue for last month. Royal etiquette forbids the attendance of monarchs upon the coronation of brother monarchs, and, therefore, the German Emperor, as much as he loves a pageant and a trip to England, was not present when King George was crowned. He and the Empress, and their daughter, the Crown Princess, made their visit late in May, and were present at the unveiling of the monument to the Kaiser's revered grandmother. Many eminent personalities were present, none more interesting to the world than the grised soldier and sailor heroes of Japan, Admiral Togo and General Nogi, who acted, as the personal representatives of the Mikado.

*The
Imperial
Conference*

The Premiers of the five British nations spent all the month of June and the last week of May in consulting, with the Prime Minister of the Empire, on matters of common interest. This is the second conference between the legislative heads of Britain's self-governing dependencies. Canada was represented by Sir Wilfrid Laurier and two of his Ministers; Australia by Premier Fisher and two of his Ministers; New Zealand by Premier Sir Joseph Ward and one member of his cabinet; South Africa by General Botha, Prime Minister, and two members of his cabinet; and Newfoundland by Sir Edward Morris, the Premier, and his Colonial Secretary. The program of the conference consisted of discussion of a wide variety of topics, including an imperial interchange of civil servants, currency, and coinage; the Declaration of London; the All Red Route; the imperial wireless telegraph system; labor exchanges in relation to the dominions; emigration and coöperation between the

naval and military forces of the Empire. It is a significant fact that the program contained no reference to any preferential trade relations. The conference, early in its session, rejected the proposals of Sir Joseph Ward to admit representatives of the press, as well as that statesman's scheme for the creation of an Imperial Council representing all the "Britains oversea." Premier Asquith offered, in return for the Imperial Council idea, to admit colonial Premiers to sittings of the Imperial Council of Defence, and a promise to submit to the High Commissioners and Agents General all matters of imperial interest that effect the dominions. We have referred elsewhere to the prominent part taken at the conference by the Canadian Premier, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who at once became one of the principal figures of the deliberations. In an address before the National Liberal Club, on June 20, Sir Wilfrid promised his hearers that Canada would

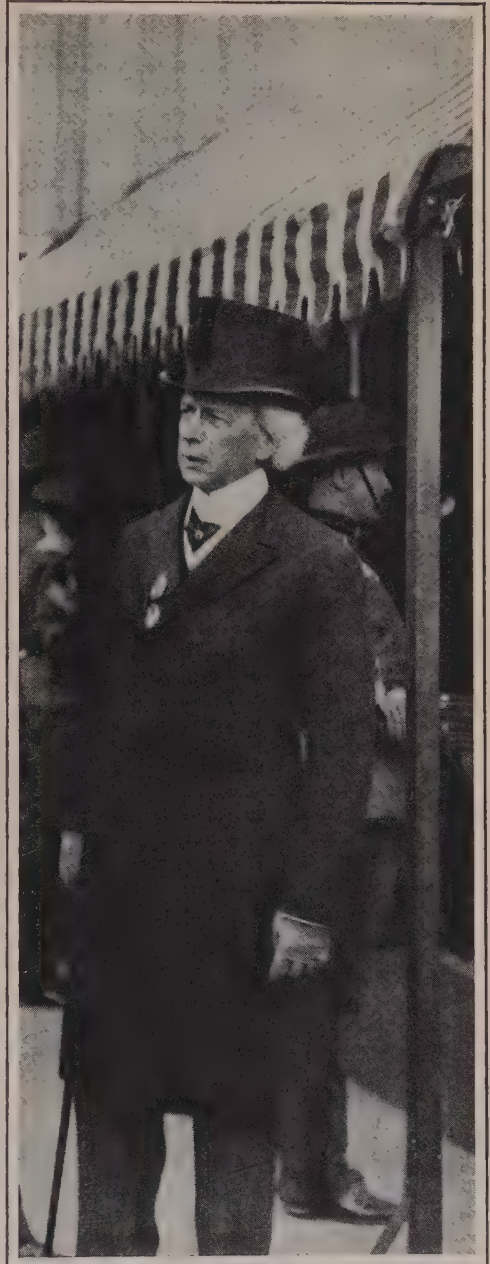
give Great Britain without question all the benefits which she received from reciprocity with the United States. Canadian preference to the motherland had come to stay, he said, and Canada did not ask compensation from Great Britain. The next Imperial Conference will be held in 1915.

*Declaration of
London
Approved*

The approval of the Declaration of London by the Imperial Council has apparently settled whether this agreement will be ratified by England. This Declaration, which contains a set of rules for the guidance of the International Prize Court, as established at the second Hague Conference in 1907, was drawn up by delegates from Great Britain, France, Germany, the United States, Japan, Russia, Italy, Austria, and Holland. It was intended to supplant the Declaration of Paris of 1854, the chief work of which was to abolish privateering. The present declaration settles the character of contraband of war; simplifies the rules regarding blockade; and provides for the universal understanding of the rights and obligations of neutrals. The point of contention with England has always been the question of the immunity of private property captured at sea in time of war. The Declaration concedes much in the direction of what Americans have always contended for, the absolute immunity of such property. Englishmen have always held to the other view, fearing that their food supply might be cut off in time of war. With her strong navy, however, England at war has really nothing to fear. When a neutral, as Mr. Asquith has pointed out, she would greatly benefit by it, since the amount of her food supply carried in foreign ships is comparatively small.

*The
British
Census*

There are now, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, 45,216,741 persons, or there were several weeks ago, when the census figures were turned in to the Home Office at London. Of this total England and Wales have slightly over 36,000,000, this showing an increase of slightly over 10 per cent. as compared with the figures of the preceding census. Scotland shows an increase of 6 per cent., and Ireland a decrease of 2 per cent. The report of the Registrar General in charge of the census notes two special factors. First, the excess of births over deaths, and second, the balance of emigration over immigration. Moreover, the country population has increased more rapidly than formerly, although rural depopulation



Photograph from Paul Thompson, New York
SIR WILFRID LAURIER, AS HE APPEARED LAST MONTH
AT THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE IN LONDON

is still a serious issue in England. The population figures for the capital show that in greater London there are 7,252,963 persons now living, an increase of 10.2 per cent. on the figures of the preceding census. Comparing the relative growth of New York and London, statisticians are reminding us that, at the same rate of growth as has obtained during



THE CHANCELLOR OF THE BRITISH EXCHEQUER
ON HIS WAY TO THE HOUSE OF COMMONS
(It is no disrespect to the British monarch to say that the
democracy of England is more interested in Lloyd
George and his social schemes than in the
royal George who sits on the throne)

the past ten years, New York will outstrip London in three decades. The decrease in the population of Ireland is positive but slight compared with the losses sustained in preceding decades. The Emerald Isle has now only a little more than one half as many inhabitants as it had seventy years ago, when the total was slightly over 8,000,000. This year's enumeration, however, shows that the outflow of emigrants is slackening. Political and economic conditions are gradually growing better in Ireland, and the island is becoming more and more nearly able to support its population. In fact, population conditions of Ireland are more encouraging than those of Scotland, which shows a much smaller rate of increase than at any preceding cen-

sus. The moral, says the *London Evening Standard*, is that the English are

becoming a people of suburb dwellers; the 'country,' in the old sense, is being depopulated; the villages are decaying; young men are leaving them, and the young women would do so if they could; the sturdy yokels, who drove the plow and dug the fields, are going off to America and Canada, or seeking employment in the big towns.

The regular administrative work of constitutional government goes on so steadily in most of the countries of continental Europe that, even when unusual situations arise, the creak of



Photograph from Paul Thompson, N. Y.
GENERAL BOTHA, PREMIER OF SOUTH AFRICA, AS
HE APPEARED IN LONDON LAST MONTH

the machinery is not audible to the rest of the world. The German Kaiser's first minister of state, Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, has increased his prestige considerably during the past few weeks, almost redeeming the two rather sterile years of his premiership. He has succeeded in getting through the Reichstag, the Socialists alone dissenting, the government's bill for recodifying the workman's insurance laws. He has also secured the enactment of a constitution for Alsace-Lorraine, on an approximately democratic basis. The Berlin Government has indicated to Secretary Knox that it would be glad to see the draft of the proposed treaty of arbitration which we have already submitted to the governments of England and France. The regular elections for the Austrian Reichsrath were held on June 13 and 20. The general results appear to have been a gain for the moderate party, with a slight increase in the Socialist vote. On June 8 the cabinet of Dr. Schollaert, which has been in power in Belgium since January, 1908, resigned, and M. Charles de Broqueville, formerly Minister of Railways, Posts and Telegraphs, formed a new ministry. The cabinet of Dr. Schollaert fell because of the opposition of the Liberals and Socialists to what they term the "pro-Clerical favoritism" in the government's education bill. The first elections for the Portuguese National Assembly since the proclamation of the republic, were held on May 28. They resulted in the return of most of the members of the cabinet, and a general victory for the republican régime. The new assembly will contain only one avowed monarchist. It is expected that this body will, at an early date, formally legitimize the republican form of government.

*The Troubles
of
Turkey*

A serious situation arose in Turkish foreign politics last month threatening to bring about general European complications. It resulted from the alleged assistance rendered by Montenegro to the Albanians, who for some months have been revolting against Turkish rule. The opinion of the Ottoman press, which sets forth the point of view of Constantinople, official and popular, is quoted on another page this month. The tenseness of the situation arose from the sharp, diplomatic note sent by the Russian Government to the Sublime Porte on May 24, in which an explanation was asked of the concentration of Turkish troops near the Montenegrin border. It was the presence of this large force, the note asserted, that necessitated the military

preparations of Montenegro of which Turkey has been complaining. A similar communication was sent to the government at Cetigné. Another note received at the same time from the Bulgarian Government referred to the killing of a Bulgarian officer in a frontier incident. The Turkish Government declined to accept the Bulgarian version of the affair or to accede without examination into the circumstances to the Bulgarian demand for satisfaction and indemnity. This note was couched in peremptory language with a threat that a failure on the part of the Ottoman Government to comply with its terms and persistence in its attitude in connection with the question could not but produce a disagreeable effect on the relations between the two countries. Constantinople papers find a certain truculence in the tone of the Bulgarian note not usual in diplomatic documents and therefore not likely to produce the desired effect. On the other hand the Bulgarian Government found itself, pressed by public opinion, easily excited where the Turks are concerned. An election is soon to be held in Bulgaria. This may account for the activity of the ministry, which has been unpopular, and which is endeavoring to justify itself to the people. It would seem that, in spite of all assurances to the contrary, the Balkan question is not settled.

*Reduction of
the British-
Indian Army*

A report last month that a reduction of the army in India was under consideration by the British Government has caused some sensation in London. It drew forth strong remonstrances from the *Times* and many Anglo-Indian correspondents in its columns, as well as from other journals, the supposition being that the contemplated decrease was to be made in the number of British troops stationed in India. It now appears that it is only certain Indian native regiments that are to be disbanded, they having, it is said, fallen below the standard. Another reason is that the British Indian administration has pledged itself to effect economies in whatever direction is possible, this being rendered necessary by the impending loss of opium revenue arising from the revised agreement with China. The fact that the Russian bogey is laid and that no new external danger exists, while the recent concessions to the political aspirations of leaders of Indian opinion appear to have allayed much of the unrest caused by the partition of Bengal, seemed to point out the military sphere as the one in which the pruning knife could be most effectively applied.



THE FOURTEEN-YEAR-OLD BOY WHO IS SHAH
OF PERSIA

The present strength of the army in India is 318,000 men comprising 79,000 British soldiers and 35,000 Volunteers, mostly British, the rest being natives including reserves and Imperial service troops belonging to the ruling princes. London *India*, commenting on the subject, says that, as there is "official unwillingness to permit India to raise her tariff upon imports," some alternative must be devised which will incidentally have the effect of soothing Indian opinion, "already somewhat militant on the question of fiscal autonomy." The question resolves itself into one of finance, the one on the proper solution of which the maintenance of the British rule in India depends more than on its armies.

*Training
a Shah
of Persia*

Last month the Persian Parliament, the Mejliss, enacted a law giving to W. Morgan Shuster, the American who has been appointed Treasurer-General of Persia, "absolute control over every department of finance including the collection and distribution of all revenues in the custody of the Treasury." We referred, some time ago, to the organization of Persian finances and the appointment of an American commission of financial advisers, with Mr.

Shuster at the head. Great changes have been going on, in recent years, in this land of ancient Eran. We have recorded, from time to time, the progress of constitutional government made at Teheran, and the main features of the economic advance of the country. More significant, as indicative of the modernization of the country, is the advance in educational methods. The old schools have been remodelled and many new ones founded. A convincing indication of the progressive policy of the new government in educational matters, is the liberal and comprehensive plan laid down for the training of the youthful ruler, Ahmed Shah, now in his fourteenth year. While the regent, with his Oxford training, rules during the minority of the youthful monarch, Ahmed Shah is preparing himself for the day when he will himself take up the reins of government. He is the first of his line to rule as a constitutional monarch, and he realizes the great responsibility that is to devolve upon him. An attache of the Persian Legation in the United States, who has had personal knowledge of the little Shah's character and attainments, sends us the following description on the way the young monarch is going to school.

A section of the imperial palaces is almost converted into an educational institution where twelve young men, well educated in the different capitals of Europe, who serve His Majesty as chamberlains, instruct him as tutors in the many branches of modern learning. There are also other elderly teachers who train the Shah in the national and intellectual principles inherited from our golden past, thus combining in the development of his character that which is best and noblest in the old and the new. To nurture and develop the spirit of democracy in his nature, the Nationalist Party have selected some twelve boys of his age, from the various classes, to receive their education with His Majesty. This creates a spirit of competition which is the best impetus to progress,—not to mention the better result which is to draw him nearer and closer to the generation he will be called upon to rule.

When I had the honor of an audience, last spring, to take leave of His Majesty, I was introduced in the "Educational Court," where His Majesty received me while surrounded with his instructors and personal entourage. The first thing which struck me as remarkable was the total absence of the species called court sycophants. The whole atmosphere was one of calm dignity and purposefulness, wholly free from that pompousness which tradition and custom are wont to associate with an Eastern court. One could see there a sacred spot wherein a royal craftsman was passing through that period of apprenticeship which would prepare him for the task of a master-builder—to build the edifice of a nation's prosperity.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From May 22 to June 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

May 22.—The House debates the New Mexico and Arizona constitutions.

May 23.—The Senate debates the resolution providing for the direct election of Senators. . . . The House passes a resolution granting statehood to Arizona and New Mexico, but requiring them to vote again on certain provisions of their constitutions.

May 24.—In the Senate, Mr. LaFollette (Rep., Wis.) urges another investigation of the Lorimer case; Mr. Heyburn (Rep., Idaho) argues against the direct election of Senators.

May 26.—In the Senate, Mr. LaFollette (Rep., Wis.) continues his remarks in favor of unseating Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.).

June 1.—The Senate votes for a reopening of the Lorimer investigation by the Committee on Privileges and Elections.

June 6.—In the House, the Ways and Means Committee reports the bill revising the wool schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff.

June 7.—The Senate approves the selection of eight members of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, four Republicans and four Democrats, to conduct the Lorimer inquiry.

June 7-10.—The House debates the bill revising the wool schedule.

June 12.—The Senate passes the House resolution providing for the direct election of United States Senators, with an amendment giving control over such elections to the federal Government.

June 13.—In the Senate, the Canadian Reciprocity bill is reported from the Finance Committee. . . . The House continues the debate on the Underwood Wool bill.

June 15.—The Senate begins debate on the Reciprocity bill.

June 16.—In the Senate, the Reciprocity bill is advanced to second reading. . . . The House continues the debate on the Underwood Wool bill.

June 17.—In the House, general debate on the Wool bill is closed, Mr. Payne (Rep., N. Y.) making a final attack upon the measure.

June 19.—The Senate discusses the Root amendment to the Canadian Reciprocity bill.

June 20.—The House, by vote of 221 to 100, passes the Democratic wool-revision bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

May 23.—Mayor Gaynor appoints Rhineland Waldo as Police Commissioner of New York City.

May 24.—President Taft refuses the applications for pardon of Charles W. Morse and John R. Walsh, the convicted bankers. . . . Secretary of the Treasury MacVeagh, speaking before the Missouri and Kansas Bankers' Association, at Kansas City, indorses the Aldrich plan for monetary reform.

May 27.—The Wisconsin Legislature approves the final amendment to the woman suffrage bill, and the measure will be submitted to the people.



MR. AND MRS. WILLIAM H. TAFT AT THE TIME OF THEIR MARRIAGE

(The silver wedding anniversary of the President and his wife was celebrated last month at the White House)

May 28.—It is announced that the Post-Office Department will this year, for the first time, show a surplus.

May 29.—The United States Supreme Court upholds the Government's contention that the American Tobacco Company is a combination in violation of the Sherman law, and orders its dissolution.

May 31.—Police Commissioner O'Meara (Rep.), of Boston, is reappointed by Governor Foss.

June 1.—At a caucus of the Democratic members of the House, the proposition to place raw wool on the free list is defeated and a bill fixing the duty at 20 per cent. is approved. . . . The Ohio Legislature adjourns. . . . J. Sargent Cram, a Tammany leader, is appointed by Governor Dix as a member of New York City's Public Service Commission. . . . Joseph Johnson, Jr., is made Fire Commissioner of New York City by Mayor Gaynor.

June 2.—Judge Gary, head of the United States Steel Corporation, states to the House investigating committee that he favors government regulation of steel prices.

June 3.—President Taft speaks in favor of the Canadian reciprocity agreement before the Western Economic Society at Chicago. . . . Chief Justice White appoints a committee, consisting of himself and Justices Lurton and Vandevanter, to revise the rules of practice in the federal courts of equity.

June 4.—Governor Tener of Pennsylvania appoints nine business and professional men as commissioners under the new Pittsburgh charter.

June 7.—Judge Gary, continuing his testimony before the House committee, states that if President Roosevelt had not approved the absorption

of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company he never would have voted for the deal.

June 8.—A report of the Department of Agriculture indicates that a record wheat crop will be harvested. . . . Judge Gary, concluding his testimony before the House investigating committee, states that he favors federal licenses for corporations. . . . A federal investigation is begun at Pittsburg into the alleged coke monopoly.

June 11.—Announcement is made that the Government will sell the monitor *Puritan*.

June 12.—An official of United States Senate is sent to Chicago to summon witnesses for the new Lorimer investigation.

June 13.—A special committee studying the rapid-transit needs of New York City reports in favor of dividing the proposed new lines between the Interborough system and the Brooklyn Rapid Transit.

June 14.—Charles R. Heike, formerly secretary of the Sugar Trust, testifies before the House investigating committee.

June 15.—Lowell M. Palmer, formerly a director of the American Sugar Refining Company, describes to the special Committee of the House which is investigating the Sugar trust the methods by which that corporation gained its power. . . . Governor Dix of New York signs the bill providing that foodstuffs shall not be kept in cold storage more than one year.

June 16.—Governor Foss signs the Massachusetts direct-nominations bill, applicable to all State officers, Congressmen, and legislators.

June 17.—The \$50,000,000 3 per cent. Panama Canal bond issue is heavily oversubscribed, the average price being 102.21.

June 20.—The voters of Trenton, N. J., adopt the commission plan of government under the provisions of the new law. . . . The second investigation into the election of United States Senator Lorimer is begun by the special Senate committee.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

May 22.—Lord Lansdowne's bill for the reconstruction of the British House of Lords passes its second reading.

May 23.—The first meeting of the Imperial Conference is held at London.

May 24.—The Portuguese Government dispatches troops to the north, where serious outbreaks have occurred.

May 25.—Porfirio Diaz resigns his office as President of Mexico; the resignations of the President and Vice-President are accepted by the Chamber of Deputies, and Francisco Leon de la Barra is chosen Provisional President. . . . The Turkish parliamentary committee recommends the construction by an American syndicate of a railway in Asiatic Turkey.

May 26.—Ex-President Diaz secretly leaves Mexico City for Vera Cruz, where he will sail for Europe. . . . The German Government's bill providing greater privileges for the provinces of Alsace-Lorraine passes the Reichstag.

May 27.—General Goiran is nominated by President Fallières as French Minister of War.

May 28.—The elections for a constituent assembly in Portugal result in overwhelming Republican victories, the Monarchists not voting.

May 29.—The British House of Lords passes the second reading of the Veto bill. . . . The Pope issues an encyclical condemning the anti-religious actions of the Portuguese Government.

June 2.—The British Imperial Conference recommends the ratification of the Declaration of London. . . . Francisco Madero, Jr., the insurgent leader, starts from El Paso for Mexico City to confer with President de la Barra concerning the formation of a new government.

June 7.—Francisco Madero, Jr., arrives in Mexico City.

June 8.—The cabinet of M. Schollaert, in Belgium, resigns owing to friction over the Ministerial School bill.

June 10.—The Mexican insurgent leader, Madero, announces that if he should be elected President he would appoint Señor de la Barra as Minister of Foreign Relations and General Reyes as Minister of War. . . . The Prince of Wales is created a Knight of the Garter by King George.

June 13.—W. Morgan Shuster, the American financier, is accorded full control of Persia's finances.

June 14.—Charles de Broqueville succeeds in forming a new Belgian ministry.

June 15.—At the Imperial Conference, in London, it was decided to consider the laying of a government cable between England and Canada, unless a considerable reduction in rates is made.

June 19.—The first Constituent Assembly of Portugal, consisting of 192 deputies, is opened. . . . King George's list of coronation honors is published.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

May 23.—Russia warns Turkey that the concentration of troops on the Montenegrin frontier is a serious menace to peace. . . . The French troops arrive at Fez, meeting with little opposition.

May 24.—It is announced at Washington that Japan is willing to consider an arbitration treaty.

May 26.—Announcement is made at Washington that Russia will henceforth accord more liberal treatment to Jewish travelers.

May 28.—A Chilean mob at Iquique burns a Peruvian flag following the rumor of an attack on the Chilean consulate at Callao.

May 29.—Japan and Russia express a desire to share in the \$50,000,000 international loan to China.

May 30.—The Chilean Government makes a military and naval demonstration to prevent further attacks on Peruvians.

May 31.—The United States warns Portugal that ex-President Castro is organizing in that country a revolutionary expedition against Venezuela.

June 3.—John Hays Hammond, special ambassador from the United States to the coronation of King George, arrives in London.

June 7.—Germany warns France to respect the sovereignty of Morocco and points out the danger of a military policy.

June 8.—President Taft sends to the United States Senate the text of a new treaty with Nicaragua.

June 12.—France announces that she will deal

with Spain on the subject of Morocco without conferring with other European powers.

June 14.—Ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, is reported as being at Port-au-Prince, Haiti. . . . A shipment of 1000 rifles and 300,000 rounds of ammunition, billed for Honduras, is held up at Mobile.

June 15.—Czar Nicholas of Russia visits the United States warships in the harbor of Cronstadt.

June 19.—The United States Government officially recognizes the new Portuguese Republic.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

May 22.—A monument to Major Pierre Charles l'Enfant, who designed the city of Washington, is unveiled at Arlington Cemetery. . . . A gift of \$500,000 to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, made by T. Coleman du Pont, is announced.

May 23.—The magnificent structure housing the three branches of the New York Public Library is formally opened. . . . Serious strike riots, with fatal results, occur in Montevideo.

May 25.—The American battleship squadron, comprising the second division of the Atlantic fleet, is warmly welcomed at Copenhagen. . . . The General Education Board announces appropriations for schools and colleges aggregating \$634,000. . . . London's population is announced as 7,252,963, an increase of 10 per cent. in ten years. . . . The battleship *Wyoming* is launched at Philadelphia.

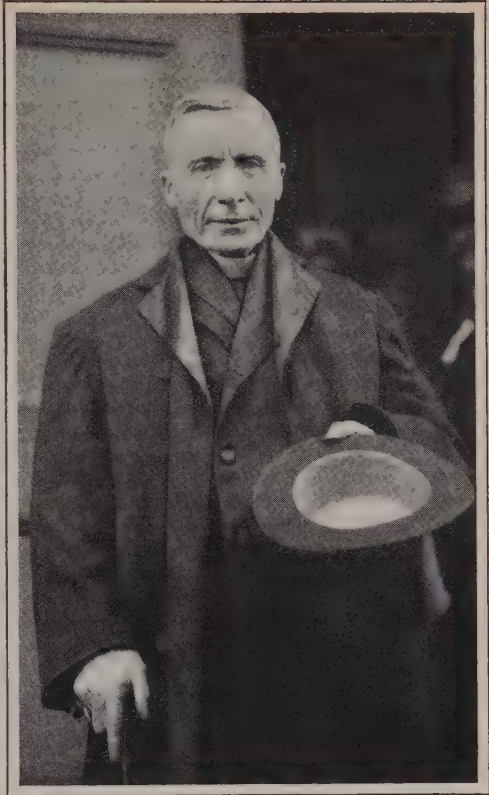
May 26.—Pierre Vedrine, a Frenchman, wins the aeroplane race from Paris to Madrid; his actual flying time for the 766 miles was 12 hours and 18 minutes. . . . The city of Springfield, Mass., celebrated the 275th anniversary of its founding. . . . Mobile, Ala., begins a celebration of its 200th anniversary.

May 27.—Rt. Rev. Edmund F. Prendergast is appointed Roman-Catholic Archbishop of Philadelphia. . . . The British cruiser *Inflexible* is seriously damaged by a collision with the *Bellerophon*, near Portland, England. . . . Fire destroys the amusement resort known as Dreamland, at Coney Island, causing a property loss of several million dollars.

May 29.—The United States Steel Corporation meets the cut in the price of steel bars made by the Republic Steel Company and announced further reductions. . . . Nine persons are killed and many others injured in a head-on collision between passenger trains near McCook, Neb.

May 30.—President Taft, at the Memorial Day exercises in the Arlington National Cemetery, pleads for international peace; ex-President Roosevelt, at the exercises at Grant's Tomb, New York City, states his belief in peace but not in arbitration treaties that would not be respected.

May 31.—The Coronation Derby, King George and Queen Mary attending, is won by Sunstar, owned by J. B. Joel of South Africa. . . . The common stock of the American Tobacco Company drops 70 points on the New York Stock Exchange, following the adverse decision of the Supreme Court. . . . Seven persons are killed during a wind and rain storm in and around Cleveland. . . . Announcement is made of the execution of a \$600,000,000 first and refunding mortgage on the Great Northern and Burlington Railroads. . . . Professor Pickering, director of the Harvard Observatory, is decorated with the Prussian Order of



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CARDINAL GIBBONS AS HE APPEARED DURING HIS ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION AT BALTIMORE

Merit, the third American to receive the honor. . . . 120 soldiers are killed or seriously injured by an explosion at Managua, Nicaragua, due to a political plot.

June 1.—The National Liberal Club of London gives a dinner to Andrew Carnegie in recognition of his efforts to promote peace.

June 2.—The first American stock, Atchison common, is quoted on the Paris Bourse. . . . The Government cotton report announces the largest crop in the history of the country.

June 4.—A monument to Victor Emmanuel II, grandfather of the Italian King, costing \$20,000,000, is unveiled at Rome.

June 5.—Eugene A. Nobel is elected president of Dickinson College.

June 6.—Fifteen thousand people, among them President Taft and ex-President Roosevelt, attend a meeting in Baltimore to congratulate Cardinal Gibbons on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession to the cardinalate.

June 7.—A severe earthquake felt throughout Mexico causes the loss of more than 1200 lives. . . . More champagne riots are reported in Eastern France due to a decree rating the Department of the Aube inferior to the Department of the Marne. . . . American potash interests notify the independent German mines that no deliveries will be accepted which are subject to the super-contingent tax.

June 8.—The Birkbeck Bank, in High Holborn, England, suspends, the deficiency reaching more

than \$3,000,000. . . . The American building at the Quito Exposition is destroyed by fire.

June 9.—An official temperature of 101.5 degrees is recorded on the street level in Chicago.

June 10.—Dean Ellen F. Pendleton is chosen president of Wellesley College. . . . The first two incumbents of the Kahn traveling fellowships for American teachers are selected (see page 47). . . . The American battleship fleet arrives at Cronstadt, Russia. . . . The battleship *Frederick the Great* is launched at Hamburg. . . . The one thousandth anniversary of the landing of Norsemen is celebrated at Rouen, France.

June 12.—The International Horse Show is opened at London, two firsts being won by Americans. . . . The sixth Congress of the International Woman Suffrage Alliance begins at Stockholm.

June 13.—The Gould interests bid in the International and Great Northern Railroad at \$12,645,000.

June 14.—Twenty thousand seamen go on strike at London, Liverpool, and other British and North Sea ports, demanding an increase in wages. . . . Announcement is made at New York of the formation of the General Baking Company, a merger of twenty-one concerns in seventeen cities. . . . The entrance class of 249 young men is the largest in the history of the United States Military Academy at West Point.

June 16.—Ex-President Diaz of Mexico is officially welcomed at Vigo, Spain. . . . The Chinese railway loan is largely oversubscribed in London.

June 17.—Ex-President Diaz issues a statement at Corunna, Spain, justifying his administration and reproaching the Mexicans for their ingratitude. . . . 40,000 women march along the route of the coronation procession, in London, as a demonstration in favor of the suffrage.

June 18.—The water level within the cofferdam around the *Maine* is lowered fourteen feet; most of the spardeck is visible and the first human bones are found. . . . Three aviators are killed at the start of a race from Paris to London and return. . . . Two receivers are appointed at New York for the United Wireless Company.

June 19.—President and Mrs. Taft celebrate their silver wedding anniversary at the White House, receiving 5000 guests.

OBITUARY

May 21.—Mrs. Williamina Paton Fleming, curator of astronomical records at Harvard University, 54. . . . Mary Huntington Cooke, one of the founders of Radcliffe College, 78. . . . Walter Angelo Powell, one of the designers of the extension to the Capitol at Washington during Fillmore's administration, 83.

May 22.—Sidney G. Ashmore, for thirty years professor of Latin at Union College (New York), 59. . . . Monsignor Dadolle, Bishop of Dijon (France), 54.

May 23.—Nathaniel Wright Lord, professor of mineralogy and meteorology at Ohio State University, 57. . . . Charles F. Choate, of Boston, former president of the Old Colony Railroad, 83. . . . Col. O. F. Nims, commander of the Nims Battery of Light Artillery (Massachusetts) during the Civil War, 92.

May 24.—Baron Desiderius Banffy, former Hungarian Premier.

May 25.—Anthony Howard Hinkle, a prominent Cincinnati citizen and philanthropist, 68.

May 26.—Brig.-Gen. John L. Bullis, U. S. A., retired, 70. . . . Israel M. Ross, a prominent railroad builder of Western Canada, 70. . . . Mrs. Mary Platt Parmelee, a writer of short histories, 68.

May 27.—Prince John of Denmark, uncle of the King, 86. . . . Solomon Woolf, for many years professor of drawing and descriptive geometry at the College of the City of New York, 70.

May 29.—Sir William Schwenck Gilbert, the librettist of "Pinafore" and "Mikado," 75.

May 30.—Brig.-Gen. Daniel W. Burke, U. S. A., retired, 70.

May 31.—John V. Clarke, president of the Hibernal Banking Association of Chicago, 48. . . . William A. Smith, president of the New York Stock Exchange in the '60's, 91.

June 3.—Rev. Dr. Arthur Tappan Pierson, editor of the *Missionary Review* and a noted Presbyterian authority on foreign missions, 74. . . . Arthur J. C. Sowdon, of Boston, president of the Episcopal Church Association for thirty years, 76. . . . Mark Bailey, for half a century teacher of elocution at Yale, 84.

June 4.—Col. T. M. Locke, chairman of the Texas secession convention which deposed Governor Houston, 87. . . . Gen. R. B. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, a noted prison reformer, 84. . . . Major F. A. Littlefield, a pioneer newspaper man of Utah, 74. . . . William Russell Dudley, emeritus professor of systematic botany in Stanford University, 62.

June 6.—David Frank Lloyd, Assistant Attorney-General of the United States, 49. . . . Edward Harrigan, the noted old-time comedian, 65. . . . Prof. Edward B. Voorhees, president of the New Jersey State Board of Agriculture, 55.

June 7.—Maurice Rouvier, twice Premier of France, 69. . . . Rear-Adm. Edward D. Robie, U. S. N., retired, 79. . . . Henry Abbey, of Kingston, N. Y., a well-known poet, 69.

June 8.—Dr. Carl Beck, a prominent New York surgeon, 55.

June 9.—Ex-Congressman A. C. Hopkins, of Pennsylvania, 73. . . . Mrs. Carrie Nation, the militant temperance advocate.

June 11.—George Edward Matthews, editor and proprietor of the *Buffalo Express*, 56. . . . John J. Jenkins, ex-Congressman and former federal judge of Porto Rico, 67. . . . Robert Brown, secretary emeritus of Yale Observatory, 75.

June 12.—Prof. Davis C. Wells, of Dartmouth, an authority on sociology, 53.

June 14.—Johann Severin Svendsen, the Danish composer, 70.

June 15.—Hiram Corson, emeritus professor of English literature at Cornell University, 82.

June 17.—Carlo Leonardo Speranza, professor of Romance languages at Columbia University, 70.

June 18.—James Proctor Knott, ex-Congressman and former Governor of Kentucky, 80.

June 19.—George Wyckliffe McBride, former United States Senator from Oregon, 57. . . . Rear-Adm. Cipriano Andrade, U. S. N., retired, 70. . . . Col. Charles W. Larned, dean of the United States Military Academy, 61.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



*The Arming of the King.
FORTITUDE · WISDOM · JUSTICE · PEACE.*

THE CORONATION OF GEORGE V, OF ENGLAND

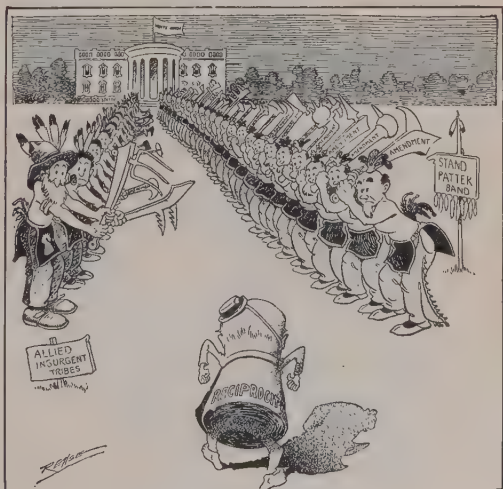
From *Punch* (London)

ENGLISH events of supreme interest or importance are almost always signalized by a dignified and appropriate cartoon in *London Punch*. The coronation of George V

has called out the tribute reproduced above, which is from the pencil of Bernard Partridge. A series of pictures relating to the coronation will be found in our pages 25 to 27. At the bottom of this page are two cartoons touching on last month's phase of the reciprocity treaty discussion.



OH, NO; HE AIN'T SKEERED!
From the *Record* (Fort Worth, Texas)

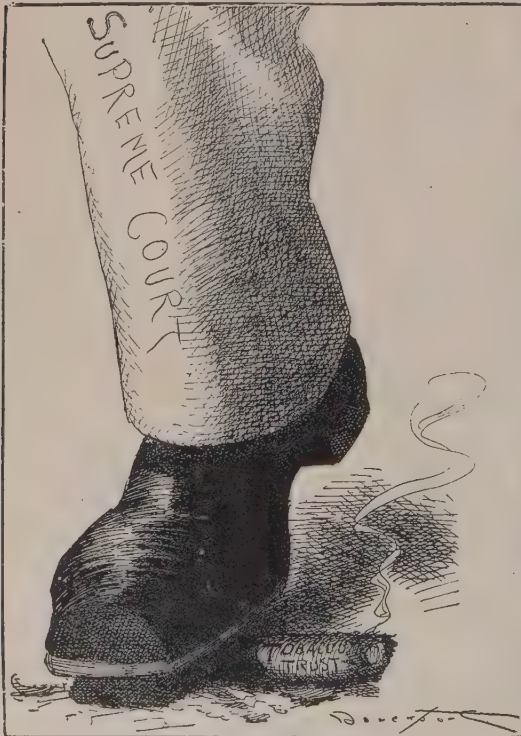


ENEMIES IN DISGUISE
From the *Evening Mail* (New York)

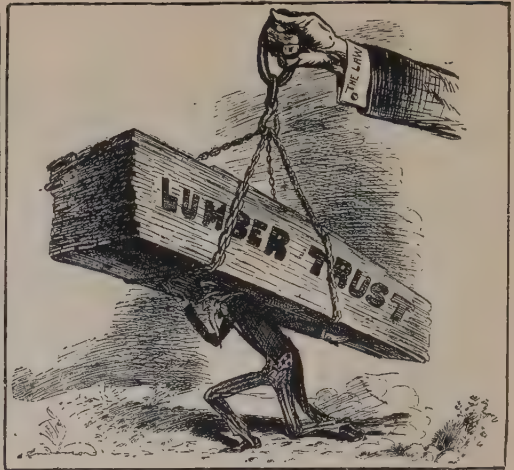


HIS PIPES'S OUT
From the *Picayune* (New Orleans)

Four of the cartoons on this page refer to the activities of the Government in the regulation of "Big Business," namely, the Tobacco Case decision, the action against the "lumber trust," and the investigation of the Steel Corporation.



ANOTHER "BAD" TRUST
From the *Globe* (New York)



LIFTING THE BURDEN
From the *Globe* (New York)



A MODEST REQUEST

"I believe we must come to governmental control of corporations even as to prices." (E. H. Gary, head of the Steel Trust, before the Congressional committee)

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



AN ANNOYING INTERRUPTION
(The Senate stops to debate the Lorimer case)
From the *Evening Mail* (New York)



BRYAN (TO THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY): "COME ON IN; THE WATER'S FINE"
From *Post-Dispatch* (St. Louis)



"LET ME LEAN ON YOU, UNCLE SAM"
(Apropos of Judge Gary's suggestion for Federal regulation of steel prices)
From the *Herald* (New York)



THE NEW ORDER IN MEXICO
MADERO: "Behold, O Liberty, the torch I have lighted in thine honor."
LIBERTY: "See, then, that it shall be a torch, and not a fire-brand."
From the *Tribune* (New York)



DIAZ MAKING HIS GREATEST GIFT TO HIS COUNTRY
(Referring to his renunciation of the Presidency)
From the *Herald* (New York)



OUR NATIONAL BIRDS, THE DOVE OF PEACE AND THE WAR EAGLE

[From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)]



JUST AMONG THEMSELVES
(Democratic aspirants playing "nomination polo")
From the *Evening Mail* (New York)



ROOSEVELT TO TAFT

"Not for a minute would I think of beating you out of such a bully chance to die a hero's death. Up and at 'em! I'll avenge you in 1916."

From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



YANKEE DOODLE CAME TO TOWN, RIDING ON A PONY!
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York)

At the top of the page the cartoonist gives us a humorous version of the Memorial Day addresses of President Taft and Colonel Roosevelt; the next cartoon celebrates the victory of the Americans over the English in the polo matches last month, while the remaining cartoons relate to Presidential politics.



NAUGHTY BOYS

From the *Journal* (Jersey City)

SIR WILFRID LAURIER, BRITAIN'S GREATEST COLONIAL PREMIER

BY ALEXANDER HARVEY

THE career of the great statesman who for so many years has held the post of Prime Minister in the Dominion of Canada affords the best possible material for a study of that reciprocity pact between Ottawa and Washington which has become so capital an event in the history of the Taft administration.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier, most illustrious of living Canadians and the one colonial statesman of international significance anywhere in the world, anticipated Joseph Chamberlain in urging a preferential tariff within the British Empire. Sir Wilfrid made an end of the Tory attitude to the United States which once swayed patriotic Canada—Anglo-Saxon as well as French. Sir Wilfrid taught the Dominion to think nationally, to look upon Canada less as a dependency than as a sister nation with other dominions forming a great empire.

He won for Canada a real treaty-making power, independent of the government at home. Downing Street was slow in yielding this last point, but, when it did, Sir Wilfrid took instant advantage of it. The grand result is a renewal with Washington of reciprocity negotiations by which Sir Wilfrid always set great store, but which seemed at one time broken off forever. Only those who have come into contact with the Canadian mind can appreciate the delicacy of Sir Wilfrid's task. His success is explicable only in the light of his incomparable and persuasive personality. Not to understand that is to miss the central feature of the situation.

THE GALIC GRACES

A graciousness of manner that gives fine expression to the Gallic temperament of the man is perhaps, next to a genius for statesmanship, the most splendid asset of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. His perfect courtesy seems inherited, for his mother, who died when he was quite young, belonged to a French Canadian family in which fine manners were blended with a no less fine appearance.

Sir Wilfrid's father, the late Carolus Laurier, gained local prominence as an operator in land, but he seems to have achieved little wealth. What talent the young man pos-

sessed came, like his good looks, from the mother, who is still recalled in local history as one of the belles of the province. The Lauriers belonged to the local aristocracy of rural Quebec. The boy went at an early age for religious instruction to the priest of the parish and by the time he was fifteen he had made his first communion and been confirmed. Even then he had won celebrity for himself by a wonderful personal beauty and a no less wonderful distinction of bearing. French was, naturally, his native tongue but as he neared manhood English became as familiar to him as the other.

The college in his native parish of Assomption afforded him his academic training and there he seems to have acquired likewise that mastery of the technical side of oratory to which the French attach rather more importance than do Anglo-Saxons. Very early in life the youth learned that clearness of enunciation and that readiness of extemporization which to this day characterize his public addresses. He went up to that alma mater of great Canadians, McGill University, while yet he was the merest youth. Nothing seems to have been alien to the genius of his mind, whether science, the arts or that kind of literature which is called polite.

Wide as was his reading, however, and eager as grew his intellectual curiosity, he seems never to have wavered in devotion to the faith of his fathers. He was as regular in youth in his attendance at mass as he has remained in the days of his greatness and power. Sir Wilfrid Laurier never permits himself to omit a punctual attendance at church on Sundays and holy days of obligation whether he be at home or abroad, for he is Catholic to the core, as were his parents before him.

BRED TO THE LAW

By the time he had attained manhood, the future Prime Minister of the Dominion was a lawyer in Montreal. It cannot be said that his rise was rapid, but it was certainly steady. He displayed that aptitude for cementing personal friendships which has remained his most wonderful asset as a political leader.

Handsome in his appearance, exquisite in his manners, kindly in his bearing, the young Montreal lawyer won respect for his sincerity no less than for his ability. The severest critic of Sir Wilfrid has yet to accuse him of concealing beneath a polished manner the real sentiments of his heart. A man may smile and smile and be a Sir Wilfrid Laurier without imputations discreditable to his candor.

BEGINNINGS AS A LAWMAKER

His one difficulty appears to have been then and since a lack of the robust constitution which was so precious to that other great colonial statesman and Canadian Premier, the late Sir John A. Macdonald. Sir Wilfrid Laurier has been forced by fate to look to his health, which, while seemingly good at present, requires consideration always. When he landed in England the other day he was bronzed by the sun and more robust in appearance than usual.

When Sir Wilfrid was thirty the legislature of his native Quebec had long been a most dignified but highly conservative body. His somewhat sudden arrival there as an exponent of liberal ideas created a sensation. His very first speech revealed an orator of genuine power, but it suggested, too, the advent of a rather heretical person. It was difficult for the French Canadians to understand the paradox of this personality, blending a fervent faith with principles that looked more or less like radicalism. A deference of manner less perfect than his, a magnetism less persuasive, an oratory less obviously Gallic, might have stopped that progress upward which in Sir Wilfrid's case has not once been interrupted.

Yet he was a poor young man and he had no influence. It was rumored that the church itself regarded him with a certain dubiousness. There were reports of one or two discussions—not to call them collisions—with the Archbishop. More than once since there have been reports of animated discussions, not to say differences, between Sir Wilfrid and the Archbishop. The good God, as they say in Canada, he knows everything.

A FRENCH CANADIAN OF THE ENGLISH SCHOOL

Obviously, Laurier did not emerge from that habitant or peasant class of French Canada which is described by so many tourists as a social survival, an anachronism. His father did not smoke a pipe of reeking home-grown tobacco, nor did his mother sit hour after

hour at a spinning wheel or a hand loom, weaving the homespun he wore. There were other books in the Laurier home besides the prayer book. The family tradition was, however, French. As a boy the susceptible Wilfrid saw his native village a-flutter with the tricolor on more than one occasion. It was proper to cherish a tenderness of feeling regarding everything French, to echo or to anticipate, rather, the observation of Senator Dandurand: "France will not cease to be our mother and Great Britain our mother-in-law."

Not that Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself ever failed in a species of spiritual allegiance to the land of his ancestors. He was, for all that, of what French Canadians call "the English school." In the words of a Canadian poet, he was "for Britain, Britain, Britain," a circumstance not wholly palatable to Gallic souls like former Mayor Beaugrand of Montreal, who deemed Laurier an Anglomaniac.

A KEEN SENSE OF HUMOR

No doubt it was Sir Wilfrid's sense of humor that helped his tact in so delicate a dilemma as his race and religion on the one hand created for his liberal politics on the other. For he has an inimitable humor—something quite unlike the story-telling jocosity of the American politician, of course, yet absolute in its sphere and in every way as effective. His most exquisite device would be described on our side of the frontier as giving himself away. Sir Wilfrid Laurier dearly loves to tell an audience that whatever his opponents allege against his case is perfectly true. Only the conclusions he draws from the circumstance are never disconcerting to himself.

Nothing could be more characteristic of this manner at its best than his remarks to the Londoners, a few weeks ago, on the well-worn theme of annexation. Many Britons had come to him, Sir Wilfrid said, asking: "Pray let us have your candid opinion. Are not the American people at this time coveting Canada?" To which he retorted amid laughter that it would be surprising if they were not. "It would be quite human if they did and certainly quite American, because every American knows a good thing when he sees it."

A THEORETICAL FREE-TRADER

Behold the young Laurier, then, a self-made man at the age of thirty-three, wedded already to the Montreal belle, Mademoiselle Zoe Lafontaine, and a member of what may be called the federal assembly of the Do-



RT. HON. SIR WILFRID LAURIER, PREMIER OF CANADA SINCE 1896

The first French Canadian to be Premier of the Dominion, Sir Wilfrid Laurier is now in his seventieth year. He was born at St. Lin, Province of Quebec, on November 20, 1841. He was educated at L'Assomption College and McGill University. Admitted to the bar in 1864, he became a Queen's Counselor sixteen years later. He entered Parliament in 1871. In 1874 he became a member of the federal assembly; Minister of Inland Revenue in the Mackenzie Ministry of 1877; defeated at the general election of 1878, but immediately afterward elected for the district of Quebec, East; and reelected at the general elections of 1878, 1882, 1887, and 1891. In the last-named year he became leader of the Liberal party, which position he has held ever since. He became Prime Minister on the resignation of Sir Charles Tupper.

minion. He was already famed as the most brilliant orator in Canada, employing with equal mastery the two languages and insisting everywhere that his allegiance was to Britain. It was a new note for a French Canadian, but he sounded it high and clear. That, as was noted at the time in one of the great London dailies, proved the cardinal doctrine of his political creed and it gave him what it is customary in England nowadays to term "an imperial reputation."

That reputation grew when Englishmen realized that the new man was a free-trader—a highly theoretical free-trader, it is true, inclined to academic application of the policy, but still believing not at all in the efficacy of protection for any purpose save that—if the Hibernianism be pardonable—of revenue. The authorized biographer of Sir Wilfrid reveals the statesman as favoring a moderate protection to facilitate trade in the peculiar circumstances of Canada.

FIRST FRENCH-CANADIAN PREMIER

The rise of the first French Canadian to hold the post of Premier in the Dominion was hailed sympathetically in Paris, whither Sir Wilfrid proceeded not long after his ministry came into being. No one in England took unkindly, if we may credit the *London Times*, the hearty welcome which, as the leading representative of the French element in the new world, he met with in the land of his forefathers. Parisians were thought to be too emphatic upon the theme of Laurier's descent from Norman ancestors. Dailies like the *Figaro* and the *Gaulois* hailed him as an exemplar of piety, of the type evolved by firm religious faith as opposed to the anticlericalism so pervasive of late in the land of St. Louis.

To the Catholic clergy in the Dominion, modern France is certainly a hotbed of atheism and even an object of suspicion. French Canadians, in truth, know very little about the France of our time and what they have been told could by no possibility help Sir Wilfrid in the capacity of mediator between Quebec and the boulevards. He did not even essay the rôle, although more than one London daily commented gloomily upon the spectacle he presented. He must have had the reflection forced upon him, as the *London Times* drily observed amid the medley of compliments paid him in France, that as a French Canadian and a Catholic, he has no reason to prefer the rule of the French republic to that of the British empire.

Such seems to have been Sir Wilfrid's idea

then and long before. He has emphasized the British connection ever since. Nor has he lost prestige with his own race thereby. "The last gun fired in British America, in defense of the British connection," said Sir Etienne Tache years ago, "will be fired by a French Canadian." Sir Wilfrid Laurier is quite too urbane and affable to put the matter in that way. He never fires guns, even in his metaphors. The feeling, he has said, of the French Canadians toward France "honors France, which has inspired it, Canada, which has preserved it, and England, which has respected it." Perhaps, however, as the *London Times* has said, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, though the most distinguished representative of the French Canadians, is "too cultivated and accomplished to be quite a typical spokesman" of a community which does not invariably see the necessity of vaccination and books.

AN ADMIRER OF THE UNITED STATES

Now, Sir Wilfrid has never displayed the least hesitation in avowing that he is an admirer of the American republic. "I am an admirer of the American people," he said in a speech made so recently as last May in London in the presence of the assembled Prime Ministers of the British dominions beyond the seas. "I admire the great fight they have made in the past for freedom. I admire the great advance they have made in civilization. I love the United States." He hastened to add that much as he loves the Americans, he, as a Canadian of French origin, loves Britain still more. Were the Americans to invite Canada into their union they would receive the reply Diogenes made to the great Alexander: "Stand a little out of my sunlight."

Time was, Sir Wilfrid conceded, when every American thought it the ultimate destiny of the republic to embrace the whole continent. Sir Wilfrid thinks another ideal is now cherished on both sides of the line. "It is that we, the two nations which now share the continent, shall give to the world the spectacle of brethren living in peace. We have the longest frontier dividing any two nations. On that frontier there is not a fortress, not a gun, not a soldier."

ADVOCATE OF PREFERENTIAL TARIFFS

Reciprocity has long been as blessed a word to Sir Wilfrid as was ever Mesopotamia to another distinguished mortal. His labors in

the cause of reciprocity have been loving. The long and tortuous negotiations instigated by Sir Wilfrid between Ottawa and Washington, the movement in Canada which the *London Standard* itself concedes to have been in favor of annexation to the United States, the reaction from that disposition there, the renaissance of loyalty to Britain throughout the Dominion—these and kindred themes are elaborated in the ablest study of Canada's great leader yet made, a two-volume work from the pen of Mr. J. S. Willison, wherein "Sir Wilfrid's aspiration for a commercial alliance between Great Britain and her colonies as an alternative to Canadian entrance into a possible United States Zollverein" rivets attention.

One fact emerges clearly. Joseph Chamberlain's preferential tariff crusade was based unblushingly upon policies that took shape originally in the brain of the greatest colonial statesman the British empire has ever possessed. However, Sir Wilfrid never blinked the awkward fact that he rules a new manufacturing country. He is a theoretical free-trader only.

THE LAURIER POLICY

The personality of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, powerful as that is—it seems to have won him the last elections—never transcends or strains the political policy to which he has adhered ever since the day, fifteen years back, upon which he assumed the post of Prime Minister. That policy has been called a national policy, a policy of building up the Canadian state. The aims of Sir Wilfrid are to unify if not to amalgamate the French Canadians and Canadians of Anglo-Saxon origin, to establish the economic independence of the Dominion as against both Great Britain and the United States, to secure for Canada the position of a kingdom within the British Empire as independent, let us say, as Hungary is of Austria, to erect a protective tariff wall of defense about Canadian industries as a basis for reciprocity negotiation in the direction of freer trade—let it be repeated that Sir Wilfrid is a theoretical free-trader—to span the Dominion with transcontinental railroad systems, to develop export markets within the British Empire. That is nearly all. The remaining part of the Laurier policy concerns us vitally. It is reciprocity, of which Sir Wilfrid is the venerable Nestor.

RECIPROCITY'S CHAMPION

In linking his fame with the reciprocity pact which signifies so much to President Taft

and to himself, Sir Wilfrid has incidentally demonstrated the truth of the Italian adage that time achieves the revenges of us all. Hat in hand, his emissaries went from Ottawa to Washington to experience only what they felt as humiliation and rebuff. Canada contemplated American tariff policy as an offensive weapon dragging her into the union. Her Tories raged vainly. Their national pride was outraged by the perception of official Washington's indifference to the Dominion market. Sir Wilfrid alone remained patient. Again and again he told his following that the great United States would yet learn the value of a trade with Canada. She was long weak in the presence of her great neighbor. Her time, the Premier repeated in his mellifluous way, would surely come. The Dingley blank wall was high, to employ one of his own figures of speech, but Canada would grow great enough to climb it. He was taunted with opposition portrayals of Canada as Uncle Sam's dumping ground, but his only retort was a genial renewal of reciprocity negotiations. His hour has come.

Affectation alone could ignore the criticism provoked by Sir Wilfrid in the transformation of his ideas into actualities. It has been said of him, for example, that he has taken over, and taken over with servility, the policies of that other great Canadian, Sir John A. Macdonald. It has been said of Sir Wilfrid that he is neither original nor constructive, but a mere imitator of greater men. He has prated much of Greater Britain, complains the *London Post*, for example, but he has done nothing to realize the imperial ideal. "He has led the way in loosening the bonds of the old colonial relationship, which is a necessary preliminary to reconstruction on the basis of imperial partnership, but he has also exerted his unequalled influence to restrain the Canadian people from attempting to face the full responsibilities of their new position." Thus the wrathful organ of British conservatism in London, vexed at Sir Wilfrid's refusal to tax Canada in the interest of a fleet built in England and officered there. If Canada is to help create a navy, it will be Canadian to the last barbette. That is the essence of the Laurier idea—an independent Canada within the British Empire.

HIS INVITATION TO AMERICANS TO SETTLE IN CANADA

Sir Wilfrid has been censured, not only in Ottawa but in London, for having permitted no less than half a million American citizens to cross the boundary line and settle on virgin territory in the great northwestern provinces.

His retort has been spirited. If that be a crime, he avows himself doubly guilty, since he has not permitted the evil merely. He has invited it. "We have said to them," to quote his own words, "that if they would come over to Canada they would find land not only equal to but superior to that in the United States. They would find institutions as good as American institutions, laws as generous as American laws. They would find also, they, the proud citizens of the republic, that the monarchy of George V was just as democratic as the government of their President." Sir Wilfrid denies that there is any peril to Britain in this. Scan the pages of history, he says, and it will never be found therein that a free and prosperous people ever thought of changing their allegiance. Not one word of all this, it must be conceded, carries conviction to the Tory mind of Britain. The Canadian Prime Minister is suspected of a new Machiavellianism. He does not value the unity of Britain.

A CANADIAN NATIONALIST

Heedless of insinuations in the opposition press at home and in England that he is no patriot, no Canadian nationalist, no imperialist, no preferentialist, Sir Wilfrid refuses the entreaty of London dailies like *The Standard* to have no more to do with a reciprocity pact directed, if we may trust the Tories, against British unity and imperial solidarity. Not a few of his critics recall his determination to discourage enlistments in Canada when the Boer War was raging. That was, perhaps, Sir Wilfrid's one false step in the political sense. He had been sufficiently reckless to declare to a journalist that the Dominion would take no part in that war. His British imperialism kept strictly within the limits of Canadian nationalism.

The interview—whether Sir Wilfrid was correctly or incorrectly quoted proved immaterial to the consequences—precipitated the

loudest explosion. The Jingoism tumbled. That wily leader of Canadian Conservatism, Sir Charles Tupper, took up the gantlet. There were some dire days during which it seemed that the Governor-General, then Lord Minto, would dismiss the Laurier ministry. A dissolution, new elections, a cry "Britain, Britain!"—these were all in the air. What happened within the close circle of the Laurier ministry in that distracted time no one has yet ascertained. Certain it is that Sir Wilfrid countermanded himself with all his own graciousness of manner and the crisis passed away. The Canadian contingents departed for South Africa and the political strain vanished with them.

London Tories still recall the crisis, for political purposes, but they do not so readily remember that the result of the last general election in Canada was a decisive vote of confidence in Sir Wilfrid.

Whatever truth may underlie current rumors of an impending dissolution of the popular branch of the Canadian legislature, there is nothing in them to dash his mood of serene confidence. He is ready for another election. Sir Wilfrid has, to be sure, attained his seventieth year. He faces it with a spirit of endurance and with a patience that has been described as bored as well as studious and refined. Perhaps he lacks the physical vigor without which oratory cannot command, but he has still the wit to make it charming and the fire to render it forceful. His courtesy is as exquisite as ever. His popularity was never so assured. No hint that he is weary of the world political suggests itself in the lightness of his platform manner or the dexterity with which he contrives to turn every argument against reciprocity with the United States into a vindication of the good temper, the sanity, and the perfect comprehension of America and all things American but for which the name of Laurier would never have associated itself with one of the supreme diplomatic triumphs of the age.



THE KAHN FOUNDATION

FOR THE FOREIGN TRAVEL OF AMERICAN TEACHERS

BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

PERHAPS the most interesting and important single movement in the world to-day is that which is bringing the various civilized nations of the earth closer together. Internationalism is in the air. Commerce and trade, as well as the increasing number of those who seek relaxation and enjoyment in foreign travel, are steadily breaking down the old barriers of race and of language. The Association for International Conciliation, which has for its motto *Pro Patria per Orbis Concordiam*, represents a truly humane and human philosophy of politics and of life. Each country will be the better and the richer for knowing more of its fellows and for being brought into more intimate relations with them.

To the agencies already established and in operation for bringing into closer contact and fuller knowledge the various peoples of the earth, a new one has recently been added which has peculiar merits of its own.

The successive Hague Conferences and the constant demonstrations of international interest and good will which have taken place in recent years both in Europe and in America have combined to produce a profound impression upon the mind and imagination of a citizen of France who embraces in his field of interest the whole known world. M. Albert Kahn is a well-known Paris banker, and man of affairs, amateur of fine arts and a lover of them, who has served as Treasurer of the Association for International Conciliation since its foundation. Several years ago, the thought occurred to him that it would be a wise plan to make provision for sending each year a few representative teachers to travel in foreign countries, to broaden their knowledge of languages, to widen their acquaintance and their sympathies, in order that they might come back to their several posts of duty with new strength and new inspiration. M. Kahn thereupon established in one country after another what are known as *Bourses de Voyage*, to be awarded each year to suitable persons, who use the money thus granted in travel.

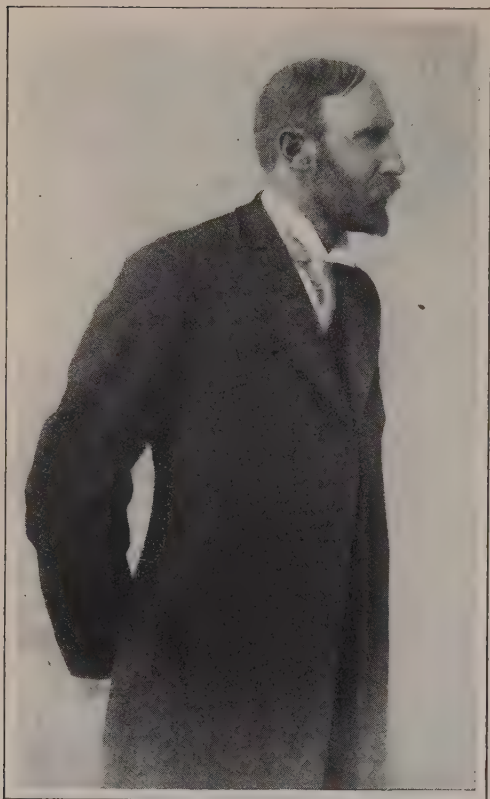
M. Kahn has established funds of this character in France, in Germany, in Japan,

and in England, and during the past year he has established such a trust in the United States.

M. Kahn has secured the coöperation of some of the most eminent of living Europeans. The Trustees of his Foundation in England include the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, Lord Avebury, and the Speaker of the House of Commons. In Japan, the Trustees include the President of the Imperial University of Japan and Baron Suyematsu of Tokyo. In Germany, the Trustees include one named by the Emperor, one named by the Cultus Minister, and one each named by the University of Berlin, the Technical High School at Charlottenburg,



PROFESSOR JOHN H. T. McPHERSON, OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
(One of the first two American Fellows on the Kahn
Foundation)



PROFESSOR FRANCIS DANIELS, OF WABASH
COLLEGE, INDIANA
(One of the first two American Fellows on the Kahn
Foundation)

and the School of Fine Arts. It is the aim of these Trustees to select as *Boursiers* or traveling fellows, teachers or scholars who have shown marked ability and promise as educators and who will enter into and appreciate the spirit of the Foundation, and look upon their travel as preparation for the performance of high duties in the instruction and education of youth, and not merely as affording an opportunity for a pleasure trip or vacation. It is the suggestion of M. Kahn that the itinerary of each *Boursier* or Fellow shall involve an absence from home of at least one year and shall include not only Europe, but Egypt, India, Japan, and other Oriental countries. Each Fellow is to furnish

to the Trustees a written report containing the impressions and results of his travel, and these reports may be printed at the discretion of the Trustees. The Trustees chosen by M. Kahn in the United States are Edward D. Adams, Nicholas Murray Butler, and Henry Fairfield Osborn, of New York; Charles W. Eliot of Cambridge, Mass.; and Charles D. Walcott of Washington, D. C.

For American teachers the first *Bourses de Voyage* are available for the year beginning July 1, 1911; and the first two *Boursiers* or Fellows to be chosen are John H. T. McPherson, Professor of History and Political Science at the University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.; and Francis Daniels, Professor of Romance Languages at Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.

Professor McPherson was graduated at Johns Hopkins University in 1886, and received the degree of Ph.D. at the same institution in 1890. He has had a successful and distinguished teaching experience, first at the University of Michigan, and since 1892 at the University of Georgia. He is an admirable representative of the best scholarship of the Southern States.

Professor Daniels was graduated at the University of Michigan in 1895, and, after pursuing advanced studies at Harvard, had experience as a teacher at the University of Missouri, and later at the University of Colorado and Cornell College, Iowa. For three years past he has occupied his present post.

It is significant that the American Trustees, in making their first appointments, have chosen *Boursiers* or Fellows from educational institutions in the South and in the Middle West. The scholars who are associated with the larger universities, particularly those on the Atlantic seaboard, have many more opportunities for contact with men and affairs than come to their colleagues who are connected with institutions in other parts of the country. For this reason, if for no other, it is highly appropriate that the choice of the Trustees should have fallen on men who so well represent the hard-working, conscientious, and devoted type of American scholarship as do Professors McPherson and Daniels.



GERMANY'S FIGHT FOR POWER

BY FREDERIC COURTLAND PENFIELD

NOT a few of the German Emperor's subjects pretend to be amazed by his grandiose utterances, the repeated affirmations of his unshakable will, and his confident appeals to the divine sanction. But, say his admirers, these are permissible to one regarding himself as the instrument of a great and crowning action which he is to perform for the lasting glorification of his country. It is admittedly a master will that has raised Germany to the position she holds—that of Britain's foremost rival in sea-power and as a constructive nation. A critical study of this dominant person, whose divine right sway has for corollary the rattle of the saber, compels the belief that William of Germany is to-day the mightiest man in Europe.

ENGLAND'S GERMANOPHOBIA

The most striking thing viewed by the student of oversea affairs is the steady advance of Germany in commercial and political importance, and to admit this is to proclaim the Kaiser a national upbuilder of matchless ability. Ever since his historic cablegram to Paul Krüger, England has had a worrying attack of Germanophobia. It used to be assumed that almost everything done by Germany was meant to awe and overshadow France, and a generation of Frenchmen had this belief. But practical Germany long ago saw that Teutonic virility and the stationary French birthrate would by 1915 secure two lusty Germans to the earth for every Frenchman. Rivalry of her former foe then ceased, and the brawn and brain of the Fatherland were stimulated to rear a nation worthy of a more conspicuous rival—the true object of German envy—the British Isles, from which a fifth of the globe is ruled.

Upon this nerve-center was Germany's covetous eye directed. In time the fact dawned upon England, and from that moment she has been in a state of chronic fear, with fright amounting on occasion to panic. From rostrum and editorial column Germany is pointed at as a country whose abiding ambition is the ultimate conquest of England, and it is said often that the Hohenzollern is but biding his time for beginning operations to that end. Once only flippantly

regarded, the words "Made in Germany" now bring sleepless nights to industrial Britain.

At his breakfast table John Bull reads that Germany is ordering numberless Dreadnoughts. The evening papers have heavy headlines stating that Germany is planning to convert Holland into a province for the undisguised purpose of bringing Germany into striking distance of Great Britain, by commanding harbors and coast line within easy steaming distance of Albion. Alarmists parade circumstantial facts proving that Germany's activities at Borkum are transforming that Friesian haven into a veritable "Gibraltar," adding thereby to the chain of North German ports bringing the naval power of the Kaiser a hundred miles nearer to England. "Borkum" was the favorite topic of the last "silly season" in London journalism, and all English papers spasmodically prate of the "German peril."

Meanwhile Consols have been falling until the lowest value in seventy years was recently reached; and in no similar condition of fear have the British been since the times of the ambitious Corsican. Toy machines flying after dark have been deemed to be airships—undoubtedly German—reconnoitering the country, and every *ignis fatuus* has been the lantern of a German spy collecting information about British defenses. The great mass of Britons have the belief that Germany is their determined enemy.

THE KAISER AS EUROPE'S "TRADE LORD"

The probable fact is that Germany is but a commercial foe, and relentlessly this; and if tireless industry can bring it, the Teuton designs having at no distant time a share of England's manufacturing and carrying trade. The purpose of every patriotic German seems to be to contribute his utmost to dethroning Britain's prestige as a business nation and securing it for the beloved Fatherland. Industrial rivalry can be more drastic than armed conflict, and it is Germany's vigor as applied in workshop and every field of toil that is menacing the British Isles. Battleships and added naval bases are merely means to a purpose—the exploitation of half the world with German products; and the

Briton, complacent in the belief that his country is superior to any successful rivalry, can be but dwelling in a fool's paradise.

As a phrase, "The Mightiest Man in Europe," can be defended when it is recalled how the second William has vivified with commerce the political creation of his august grandparent. It used to be the fashion to speak of the Kaiser as the War Lord of Europe, but in only a few uprisings where colonization was being carried out has Germany fired a shot in real conflict since the present ruler came to the throne. To a greater extent than any other European monarch is he the exemplar of peace. He knows that the fruits of thrift are better for national stability than the glories of war. Hence the proper description is—and no designation can be more honorable—that he is the Trade Lord of Europe.

Let it be remembered that under his rule nearly every industry has doubled if not trebled, and that the commerce of Germany has grown in a way having no continental parallel. Suez Canal returns prove that the turnstile between Europe and the Orient is used by a growing number of ships under the German flag, while under the British ensign they are yearly falling in number. The Kaiser's people are progressing as the result of determined industry, and it is a splendid fact that the artisan, and not the drill-master, is making the Fatherland great.

William is tireless in getting new markets, and nine times out of ten he captures them from his British rival. He was one of the first to foresee that China could not forever resist the invasion of outside enterprise, and almost under his personal guidance the bankers and manufacturers of his nation have secured a footing in the Middle Kingdom that must grow to have enormous value.

GERMANY OUT FOR THE WORLD'S COMMERCE

Anybody may find reasons why William seeks to make Germany important through commerce. Let it be admitted that he chafes at barriers and that there is a boundlessness to his nature. Whenever he consults the imperial map he must perceive that the frontiers are precisely those bequeathed by William the Great, and the loftiest ambition of a monarch is to have the national domain expand under his rule. The Kaiser shudders at the crowded condition of the earth in this twentieth century, when most frontiers seem permanently fixed. The Monroe Doctrine prevents his having even a coaling station in the Western hemisphere. This is, perforce,

more than annoying, although the sons of Germany control numerous lines of trade in many South and Central American republics. In his musings over the Doctrine it is likely that the Emperor may say to himself: "Revenge I'll have upon the countrymen of Monroe by capturing every sort of trade; yes, I'll make Germany the workshop of the universe. To perdition with the Doctrine! Keep your territory—I'll get my share and more of the business of your continent!"

The Trade Lord had always known that the East, teeming with humanity like ants, was rich beyond the dreams of avarice, and had packed the coffers of England and given dominance in world power to the Britons. Consequently a legion of trade-getters was hurled five or six years ago upon Asia, and these planted outposts in Ceylon, sent a column of bagmen to India and the Malay States, and placed commercial pickets everywhere in China and Japan.

It was discovered early that England held no title to Eastern commerce, and none that was absolute to that of Australia. Britons following the time-honored custom of selling goods of kinds that they assume foreigners should have, the pliant and patient Germans are glad to furnish what the buyer prefers, and consequently get many orders. It is understood that the Hohenzollern personally considers every diplomatic and consular appointment to the Celestial Empire, and that commercial aptitude is the prerequisite of assignment—and each official knows that the Kaiser's interest in Chinese business amounts to mania.

A GREATER GERMANY

Germany's colonies are unpopular at home, because of the yearly drain upon the exchequer. This fact, although unimportant, when taken with the impossibility of territorial control on this side of the Atlantic, has had its share in directing energy into channels of trade, for none other was open—and every progressive German knows that national welfare based upon commerce is aggrandisement in its safest form. "We can now only build up our resources," explain Berlin wise-acres, "but the next generation will see a greater Germany, possessing in all probability the Netherlands, striking southward to Trieste on the Adriatic, and including Palestine and a considerable area in Asia Minor, as well." A larger Germany seems as inevitable as the recurrence of seasons, and will probably come when Europe again falls upon war and map-making. Should there be a parcel-

ing of Austria following the demise of beloved Franz Josef, Germany's aspiration of access to the Adriatic may be achieved; and the Germanizing of the Holy Land may be accomplished whenever the powers decide to rend the Ottoman provinces.

With the Germans it is unpalatable to have the mouths of the mighty Rhine controlled by a small and none too friendly neighbor. It is easier to predict that at some time Holland will be governed from Berlin than to state how this is to be accomplished. Invasion would be resented by more than one government, but subtle persuasion might bear fruit. The late Dr. Emil Reich not long since had the temerity to assert that the time is not remote when Holland will be called upon to defend her title to vast Java against an Asiatic invader, and must have aid or lose her Eastern colonies. Alliance with Germany, he insisted, would preserve the integrity of the Dutch possessions, and the price would be Holland's acceptance of rule as an individual state of the German Empire.

DUTCH DEFENSES

The proposal that the Dutch spend \$18,000,000 in coast defenses, while the frontier with Germany is undefended, has roused much comment. Some British statesmen have asked who is to benefit by the defensibility of Holland's coast, while others pretend to have heard of a "fatherly" letter from the Kaiser warning Wilhelmina to put her realm in condition to resist invasion from the sea. Failing to heed the Hohenzollern's advice, these men of prescience claim, the Queen was cautioned that in the event of foreign war

Germany might have to take over control of her country.

Germany is not a government only knowing absorption when territory is acquired. Each of her twenty-six states to a considerable extent retains its independence. Bavaria, for example, has her own king, laws, and army. "If Germany proposed to Holland"—wrote Dr.

Reich—"to become the twenty-seventh state of the empire, Holland would not be obliged to abandon queen, language, or laws. The Dutch would send deputies to the Reichstag, and Germans would be permitted to enter merchandise free of duties in Dutch harbors. Why should the Dutch consider such a union? To this there has been a strong answer ever since Japan's victory in the war with Russia. The matter borders upon the imperative."

Germany is spending enormous sums in improving her North Sea defenses, is fortifying Heligoland, and converting Emden—near the mouth of the Ems—into a harbor accommodating any fleet, thereby bringing nearer to the open sea the naval strength of the Kaiser. Germany has the amplest right to develop ports and fortifications within her border, certainly without consulting



EMPEROR WILLIAM II. AS A GERMAN CITIZEN,
FROM A RECENT PHOTOGRAPH

the opinion of England at all in the matter.

BRITISH AND GERMAN DREADNOUGHT FLEETS

It is interesting to watch the "Dreadnought game," played by England and Germany. The press has been at it fast and furious since the mammoth fighting machine was perfected. For months the contest has been at

white heat, in consequence of which much ink has been shed and many heartburnings occasioned in the British Isles. Believe the newspapers and England is on the brink of ordering many of these leviathans, with countless guns to go with them. Never mind what the Admiralty says, or what the budget permits, Fleet Street periodically sets out to create a flotilla that will brook no rivalry. Then the German press explains exultantly what the Kaiser is to do, and the program always "sees" England and goes a ship or two better, besides increasing the caliber of the guns with each journalistic broadside. When these statements reach Albion the people can almost hear the din of German dockyards, working with "feverish haste" both by day and night.

Each power is fast adding to its sea-strength, and the Dreadnought type is in demand, as everybody knows. But construction proceeds normally on both sides of the North Sea. England's fleet is the strongest in the world, while Germany's is but a poor second. Exactly stated, the present power of both navies is this: England has eight Dreadnoughts and Germany four. Of battleships of 10,000 or more tons displacement, exclusive of Dreadnoughts, England has forty-nine and Germany twenty-two. Of armored cruisers—now regarded as adding very little to fighting strength—England has eighty-four and Germany half as many; and of destroyers England has one hundred and sixty-eight and Germany ninety-one.

The cardinal point of interest in the naval program of the countries is this: England has ten Dreadnoughts under construction, while Germany is building nine, and debating the wisdom of ordering more. Some critics contend that, Great Britain being practically all coast, and with possessions throughout the universe, England's force could not be used as a unit, as Germany's might. Hence, reason the experts, Germany already is a match for England. When fighting strength is considered, it is almost overpowering to the intellect to learn that the German-Austrian alliance means that 7,000,000 soldiers receive the word of command in German. And the idea is abroad that this command is given from Berlin.

When William II. came to the throne in 1888 the imperial fleet was insignificant. His energy has raised the service to second place among the world's navies. With an army of four million men—several times greater than England's home force—experts claim that in the event of hostilities with

Russia or France a fleet would scarcely be required. With Austria, likewise creating a powerful navy, Germany can have no dispute, for the countries are allies.

"What is the purpose, then, of the navy that Germany will possess by 1912?" ask English writers. One of these declares that it is meant only for the North Sea, and there to be a menace to the British Isles. He insists that the ships are built in a manner prohibiting their use in distant waters. "Yes," concludes this alarmist, "Germany's fleet is for the North Sea, and will there remain, and behind it will be everything needed for armament, docking and repairing." Possessing no water frontier save the North Sea and its connecting bodies of water, an impartial observer might inquire why the German Government should distribute its costly fleet upon seas where the country can have but little interest. But some British publicists pretend to think that only England has a right to the North Sea.

A GROWING COUNTRY

The recent quinquennial census shows the population of Germany to be 65,000,000, indicating an increase of 4,500,000 in five years and 20,000,000 in thirty years. Dr. Wilhelm Hübbe-Schleiden predicts that by 1980 there will be 150,000,000 Germans. The present population of the British Isles is 45,000,000, which represents an increase of less than 11,000,000 in thirty years. In Germany the demand for labor has practically checked emigration, while the reverse is the case in great Britain. As might be expected, partisans of protection point to Germany as progressing by leaps in all material ways, while Free Trade England falls behind—in one there is plenty of work, while the other has an idle class burdensome to the nation. Germany's increase of population will soon be at the rate of a million a year, and it is the purpose of the government to keep every patriotic man and woman at home to toil for the Fatherland's advance. In England the newspapers are filled with advertisements encouraging migration to Canada, Australia, and other colonies. Ten years ago German emigration was about 121,000 souls annually; last year it was scarcely 25,000 persons, and nearly all to America.

Germany's national wealth is now estimated at \$88,000,000,000, while fifteen years ago it was \$55,000,000,000. Recent Prussian statistics indicate that the aggregate taxable incomes of less than \$750 a year have risen

from \$775,000,000 in 1895 to \$1,900,000,000 in 1910—an increase of 150 per cent. in fifteen years. Savings bank deposits have expanded in fifteen years from \$1,125,000,000 to upward of \$3,000,000,000, and it is held that the average wage has risen in ten years from \$186.50 to \$256.25. This improvement is 38 per cent., while cost of living has advanced about 25 per cent. The income tax in 1895 produced \$38,000,000, while last year it was \$73,000,000.

SUCCESSFUL FARMING

While economic success has been brought about by developing manufacturing, the use of machinery and chemical fertilizers is winning from the soil a bounty greater than a quarter of a century ago, when the country numbered eight or ten million more agriculturists. In many progressive countries the movement of humanity is away from the soil. This is manifested in Germany by the fast-expanding population of urban communities. With its environs Berlin has close upon 3,000,000 inhabitants, and offers advantages that a generation since were unthought of. Hamburg has 1,000,000 people. Here as about Bremen, what were green fields a few years ago are now harbor basins, and the quays of these ports possess every modern appliance for loading and unloading vessels. Munich, Dresden, and Leipsic have 600,000 people each, while Cologne boasts of 500,000. Germany to-day is noisy with industry, with skies overhung with mantles of smoke from the chimneys of furnaces, chemical works, porcelain factories, and manufacturing plants of every kind.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

In Prussia the northeastern provinces have largely been deserted by the young of the farmer class for factory employment in the towns. The Rhenish-Westphalian coal and iron district attracts labor from Posen, while thousands of Russian and Galician Poles yearly cross the frontier to secure a summer's work in the eastern provinces. Italians and Croats are drawn in numbers to Germany, where their toil finds liberal compensation. Rural prosperity in the past twelve years is reflected in a threefold increase in land value. An American economist said recently that if the farmers of the United States could raise crops as prolific as the Germans do, that Uncle Sam would be a billion dollars richer each year. This praise was meant to apply

not alone to the soil of Germany but to the intelligence of the husbandman as well.

Germany's exports last year were valued at \$1,750,000,000; a dozen years ago they were \$701,500,000. Notwithstanding this showing the balance of trade is against the country; for last year's imports were \$914,000,000 greater than those of twelve years ago. It should be borne in mind that as a nation growing in population, whose keynote is manufacturing, the bringing in of raw materials to be fabricated is enormous. Shipping under the German flag has in a quarter of a century developed sevenfold, and 64 per cent. of the sea freight is carried at preferential rates in subsidized bottoms. The realm is hungry for trade, that is apparent to any observer, and is being made rich by the multiplicity of things "Made in Germany."

There is constant discussion as to whether German prosperity is due to the tariff policy of protection. Some English pamphleteers insist that facts are habitually perverted in the Fatherland's statistics. More than one Fleet Street writer, conceding the genuineness of German upbuilding, mourns because Britain is falling behind owing to her retention of free trade. Others argue that progress in Germany, where every man has been a trained soldier or sailor, is largely due to the conscription rule, while lagging England has volunteer enlistment. The discipline of Germany, argue these critics, permanently rouses industry and enterprise.

SOCIALISTIC PROPAGANDA

Germany's curse seems to be socialism, spreading so rapidly that many statesmen are apprehensive of the length to which it may go. Its spread in 1910 was greater than ever. During the year the Socialists held thirty thousand meetings, and distributed 23,000,000 leaflets and 2,500,000 pamphlets. The Socialist party has many representatives in the Reichstag who attack any measure deemed to be super-monarchical. In the Prussian Diet a Socialist member has recently said that matters were developing in a way making it possible for the German crown to be swept away in a night, as was the case in Portugal. The German Chancellor has seen fit to warn the more radical exponents of socialism that they would be held to account for excesses resulting from their teachings.

Save for socialism, the German nation is homogeneous, while Britain is rent by national indecision and political forebodings. Germany's imperial policy seems remarkably

continuous. Its exponents work consecutively, strenuously, unobtrusively—theirs is the Bismarckian policy of blood and iron, with “ever ready” for its watchword.

BRITISH “MUCK-RAKING” IN GERMANY

The sending of British commissions and delegations to Germany to investigate material conditions has been the fashion. Political parties and leagues and societies advocating this or that have had inquisitors ransacking the Fatherland from frontier to frontier, and their findings have been embodied in tons of reports, some instructive, but most of them unconvincing and stupid.

Hundreds of “Free Trade Leaguers” and “Tariff Trippers” have sought the secret of German prosperity, and their junketings have produced deductions wonderfully expressed. As might have been expected, the predilections of the visitors have found ample support as a consequence of the investigation. Free-traders discovered that Germany was not prospering because of protection, and *vice versa*. Employers of labor invariably learned that the toiling classes were poorer paid and worked more hours than at home. In fact, every investigator seemed to discover what he wished to find. Nearly every delegate published his “report,” with the result that England has had a plague of leaflets. Hundreds described what they believed they saw, but one tripper tersely told what he *did not* see, and this was the best report of the avalanche. Here is what he said of Germany: “No unemployed standing at street corners. No drunkenness or brawling. No hooliganism. No slums of poverty

as in England. No discourtesy. No begging or hawking. No deformed persons. No land out of cultivation. No ragged children. No late trains.”

The alarming discovery was made that thousands of poor subsist in part on horseflesh and to prove the horror scores of investigators brought home the public advertisements of horseflesh merchants. These produced an outburst of righteous indignation. About a hundredth part of the meat eaten in Germany is horseflesh. It is sold openly as such, and it is held to be wholesome and palatable, and is rigidly inspected by health officials.

Probably every continental country has people who eat horseflesh, on account of its cheapness—in Germany it sells at eight or ten cents a pound. Other British investigators pounced upon the black bread as unfit for human beings, comparing it detrimentally with the armor-coated loaves of rural England.

One cannot know the conditions and ambitions of Germany and Great Britain—each fighting to the point of desperation for power and trade—without perceiving the enormous mutual advantage that would accrue could a treaty of amity and commerce

between the two be brought about. Such an alliance, with immediate cessation of expenditure over sea-power agreed upon, would have the greatest material value, besides practically insuring the peace of Europe and Asia for years to come. With the Anglo-Japanese treaty soon to expire, the most brilliant achievement open to British statesmanship would surely be the securing of an alliance with the rival across the North Sea whose progress is astonishing the world—Germany.



THE ANGLO-GERMAN RACE FOR NAVAL SUPREMACY
(The question of precedence before the door of the Temple
of Disarmament)

From Kalem (Constantinople)





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SIGNAL CORPS RECONNOITERING AT FREDERICKSBURG, VIRGINIA

THE SIGNAL CORPS IN THE CIVIL WAR

BY A. W. GREELY

(Major-General United States Army)

[Following is the account of the Signal Service operations of the Civil War especially prepared by General Greely for the "Photographic History of the Civil War" and this magazine. It is the seventh article in our anniversary series and is illustrated entirely from war-time photographs.—THE EDITOR.]

NO other arm of the military services during the Civil War excited a tithe of the curiosity and interest which surrounded the Signal Corps. To the onlooker the messages of its waving flags, its winking lights and its rushing rockets were always mystic in their language, while their tenor was often fraught with thrilling import and productive of far-reaching effects.

The signal system, an American device, was tested first in border warfare against hostile Navajos; afterward, the quick-witted soldiers of both the Federal and Confederate armies developed portable signaling to great advantage. The invention of a noncombatant, Surgeon A. J. Myer, it met with indifferent reception and evoked hostility in its early stages. When the stern actualities of war were realized its evolution proceeded

in the Federal army in face of corporation and departmental opposition, yet despite all adverse attacks it ultimately demonstrated its intrinsic merits. Denied a separate organization until the war neared its end, the corps suffered constantly from strife and dissensions in Washington, its misfortunes culminating in the arbitrary removal of its first two chiefs. Thus its very existence was threatened. Nevertheless, the gallant, efficient services of its patriotic men and officers in the face of the foe were of such striking military value as to gain the confidence and win the commendation of the most distinguished generals.

Major Myer began work in 1861, at Georgetown, District of Columbia, with small details from the volunteers, though the corps eventually numbered about three

hundred officers and twenty-five hundred men. Authorized as a separate Corps by the Act of Congress, approved March 3, 1863, its organization was not completed until August, 1864. The outcome was an embodiment of the army aphorism that "One campaign in Washington is worth two in the field." More than two thousand signal men served at the front, of whom only nine were commissioned in the new Corps, while seventeen were appointed from civil life. As a result of degradation in rank eleven detailed officers declined commissions or resigned after acceptance. Colonel Myer, the inventor and organizer of the service, had his commission vacated in July, 1864, and his successor, Colonel Nicodemus, was summarily dismissed six months later, the command then devolving on Colonel B. F. Fisher, who was never confirmed by the Senate. That a Corps so harassed should constantly distinguish itself in the field is one of the many marvels of patriotism displayed by the American soldier.

Signal messages were sent by means of flags, torches or lights, by combinations of three separate motions. The flag (or torch)

was initially held upright: "one" was indicated by waving the flag to the left and returning it from the ground to the upright position; "two" by a similar motion to the right, and "three" by a wave (or dip) to the front. Where a letter was composed of several figures the motions were made in rapid succession without any pause. Letters were separated by a very brief pause, and words or sentences were distinguished by one or more dip motions to the front, one, signifying the end of a word, two the end of a sentence, and three the end of a message.

SIGNAL ALPHABET, AS USED LATE IN THE WAR

A- 11	G-1122	M-2112	S- 121	Y- 222
B-1221	H- 211	N- 22	T- 1	Z-1111
C- 212	I- 2	O- 12	U- 221	&-2222
D- 111	J-2211	P-2121	V-2111	tion-2221
E- 21	K-1212	Q-2122	W-2212	ing-1121
F-1112	L- 112	R- 122	X-1211	ed-1222

NUMERALS

- 1-12221 = Wait a moment.
- 2-21112 = Are you ready?
- 3-11211 = I am ready.
- 4-11121 = Use short pole and small flag.
- 5-11112 = Use long pole and large flag.
- 6-21111 = Work faster.
- 7-22111 = Did you understand?
- 8-22221 = Use white flag.
- 9-22122 = Use black flag.
- 0-11111 = Use red flag.

CODE SIGNALS

- 3 = "End of word." 33 = "End of sentence."
- 333 = "End of message." 121212 = "Error."
- 11,11,11,3 = "Message received (or understood)."
- Constant and unbroken waving = "Attention, look for signals."

To hasten work there were many abbreviations, such as: A = "After"; B = "Before"; C = "Can"; Imy = "Immediately"; N = "Not"; Q = "Quiet"; R = "Are"; U = "You," and Y = "Why."

When using Coston marine night signals there were more than twenty combinations of colored lights which permitted an extended system of prearranged signals. White rockets (or bombs) = one; red = two, and green = three. White flags with a red center were most frequent, though with snow a black flag was used and with varying background the red flag was seen farther.

CIPHER SIGNALING

To secure secrecy all important messages were enciphered by means of a cipher disk. Two concentric disks, of unequal size and revolving on a central pivot, were divided along their outer edges into thirty equal compartments. The inner and smaller disk



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CONFEDERATE SIGNALMEN IN '61 AT CHARLESTON, S. C.
(The Confederate Signal Service was first in the field)



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SIGNAL OFFICER PIERCE RECEIVING A MESSAGE FROM GENERAL McCLELLAN AT THE ELK MOUNTAIN STATION, AFTER THE BATTLE OF ANTIETAM

contained in its compartments letters, terminations, word pauses, etc., while the outer, larger disk contained groups of signal numbers to be sent. By the use of prearranged keys, and through their frequent interchange, the secrecy of messages thus enciphered was almost absolutely insured.

In every important campaign and on every bloody ground, the red flag of the Signal Corps flaunted defiantly at the forefront, speeding stirring orders of advance, conveying warnings of impending danger, and sending sullen suggestions of defeat. They were seen on the advanced lines of

Yorktown, Petersburg and Richmond, in the saps and trenches at Charleston, Vicksburg and Port Hudson, at the fierce battles of Chickamauga and Chancellorsville, before the fort-crowned crest of Fredericksburg, amid the frightful carnage of Antietam, on Kenesaw Mountain deciding the fate of Allatoona, in Sherman's march to the sea, and with Grant's victorious army at Appomattox and Richmond. They spoke silently to Dupont along the dunes and sounds of Carolina, sent word to Porter clearing the central Mississippi River, and aided Farragut when forcing the passage of Mobile Bay.

HAZARDS OF THE SERVICE

Did a non-combatant corps ever before suffer such disproportionate casualties—killed, wounded and captured? Sense of duty, necessity of exposure to fire, and importance of mission were conditions incompatible with personal safety—and the Signal Corps paid the price. While many found their fate in Confederate prisons, the extreme danger of signal work when conjoined with stubborn adherence to outposts of duty is forcefully evidenced by the fact that the killed of the Signal Corps were 150 per cent. of the wounded, as against the usual ratio of 20 per cent.

The Confederates were first in the field, for Beauregard's report acknowledges the aid rendered his army at Bull Run by Captain E. P. Alexander, a former pupil of Myer. McDowell was then without signalmen, and so could neither communicate regularly with Washington nor receive word of the vitally important dispatch from Patterson at Harper's Ferry telling of Johnston's departure to reinforce Beauregard at Manassas, which should have obviated the battle. Major Myer was quick, however, to establish a signal training school at Georgetown, D. C.

In view of modern knowledge and practice, it seems almost incredible to note that the Secretary of War disapproved in 1861 the recommendation made by Major Myer, Signal Officer of the Army, for an appropriation for field telegraph lines.

While efforts to obtain, operate and improve such lines were measurably successful on the part of the army, they were strenuously opposed by the civilian telegraph corporations so potent at the War Department.

Active protests proved unavailing and injurious. Colonel Myer's circular in 1863 describing the systematic attempts of the civilian organization to deprive the Signal

Corps of such lines "as an interference with a part of the Signal Corps' legitimate duties," caused him to be placed on waiting orders, while all field trains were ordered to be turned over to the civilian force. It may be added that both organizations in the field coöperated with a degree of harmony and good-fellowship that was often lacking in Washington.

Skilled parties were thus available for the Peninsula campaign of 1862, where McClellan utilized them, strictly army work being supplemented by placing signal officers with the navy and thus insuring that co-operation vitally essential to success. Not only was military information efficiently collected and distributed, but at critical junctures McClellan was able to control the fire direction of both the field artillery of the army and the heavy guns of the navy.

At Yorktown coigns of vantage were occupied in high trees and on lofty towers, whence messages were sent to and fro, especially those containing information of the position and movements of the enemy, which were discerned by high-power telescopes—an important duty not always known or appreciated. Often their work drew the Confederate artillery and sharpshooters' fire, of unpleasant accuracy. The saving of Franklin's command at West Point, after the evacuation of Yorktown, was in large part due to the efficiency of the Signal Corps. Finding himself vigorously attacked by a superior force, Franklin ordered his signal officer to call up the fleet just appearing. Quickly placing his signalman in a high tree, the flag was frantically waved, the steady approach of the foe inciting action. A keen-sighted signal officer was alert on the gunboat, and, catching sight of the flag, answered. In a few minutes Franklin's request that the woods be shelled was so efficiently carried out as to save the day for the Federal army.

Valuable as was the work before Richmond, under fire, in reconnoitering and in coöperation with the Military Telegraph Service, it proved to be indispensable to the success of McClellan in changing his base from York River to James River—its importance culminating at Malvern Hill. It will be recalled that the Seven Days' Battle ended with the bloody struggle on the banks of the James, where the use of the Signal Corps enabled McClellan to transform impending defeat into successful defense. When the vigorous Confederate attack at Malvern Hill threatened the rout of the army, McClellan was aboard the United States Steam-



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SIGNAL CORPS OFFICERS, HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE POTOMAC, OCTOBER, 1863

(Among these officers are General [then Captain] Charles E. Davis [leaning on peach-tree] and Captain P. A. Taylor, Captain Fountain Wilson, Lieutenant A. B. Capron [afterward Member of Congress] and Lieutenant G. J. Clarke, all members of the Signal Corps)

ship *Galena*, whose army signal officer informed him of the situation through messages flagged from the army. McClellan was thus enabled not only to give general orders to the army then in action, but was also able to direct the fire of the fleet, which had moved up the James for coöperation, most efficiently. The signal officers with the army sent such messages as: "Fire one mile to the right. Fire low into the woods near the shore."

Lee's invasion of Maryland in 1862 would have been a complete surprise, except for the watchful vigilance of a signal officer of the Signal Corps, Lieutenant Miner, who occupied Sugar Loaf, the highest point in Maryland. From this lofty station were visible the more important fords of the Potomac, with their approaches on both sides of the river. Miner detected the Confederate advance guard, the train movements, and noted the objective points of their march. Notifying Washington of the invasion, although unprotected he held his station to the last and was finally captured by the Southern troops. The reoccupancy of Sugar Loaf a week

later enabled McClellan to establish a network of stations, whose activities contributed to the victory of South Mountain.

As Elk Mountain dominated the Valley of the Antietam, it was occupied only to find that the dense woods on its summit cut off all view. However, energetic action soon cleared a vista, known by the soldiers as McClellan's Gap, through which systematic telescopic search revealed all extended movements of the foe. The busy axe furnished material for a rude log structure, from the summit of which messages of great importance, on which were based the general disposition of our troops, were sent. Among such messages is a report of the retreat of Lee's wagon-train toward Shepherdstown Ford. Again the reënforcement of A. P. Hill's division from Harper's Ferry was noted and word sent to Burnside: "Look well to your left. The enemy are moving a strong force in that direction."

At Fredericksburg flag-work and telescopic reconnoitering were supplemented by the establishment of a field telegraph line connecting army headquarters with Frank-

lin's grand division on the extreme left. The flag station at headquarters kept Burnside in constant touch with the Federal attacking force on the right, under Couch and Hooker through their signalmen in the courthouse steeple. One station near a field hospital was under fire, which killed about twenty men and wounded many others near by, until the surgeons asked suspension of flagging to save the lives of the wounded.

The swimming of the Rappahannock by Sergeants Gustavus Lehlback and Williams with the cable of the field telegraph train was one of the incidents of Banks' Ford, while the breaking down of a bridge would have entailed further disaster and a rout after Chancellorsville had it not been possible to arrange for holding a position pending repairs.

A most important part of the Signal Corps duty was the interception and translation of messages interchanged between the Confederate signalmen. Perhaps the most notable of such achievements occurred in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864. On Massanutten, or Three Top Mountain, was a signal station which kept Early in touch with Lee's army to the southeastward, near Richmond, and which the Federals had under close watch. Late in the evening of October 15th, a keen-eyed lieutenant noted that "Three Top" was swinging his signal torch with an unwonted persistency that betokened a message of urgency. The time seemed inter-

minable to the Union officer until the message began, which he read with suppressed excitement as follows: "To Lieutenant-General Early. Be ready to move as soon as my forces join you, and we will crush Sheridan. Longstreet, Lieutenant-General."

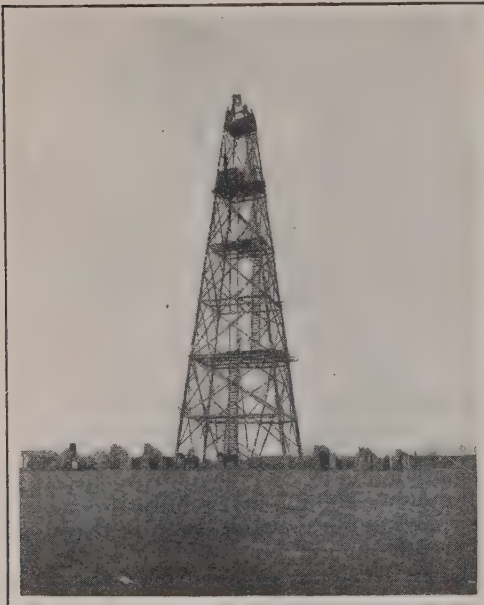
Sheridan was then at Front Royal, en route to Washington. The message was handed to General Wright, in temporary command, at once, and was forwarded by him to Sheridan at midnight. The importance of this information is apparent, yet Early took the Union army completely by surprise three days later, at daybreak of October 19th, though the tide of morning defeat was turned to evening victory under the inspiration of Sheridan's matchless personality.

It was in this campaign, and especially at Gettysburg, one of the decisive battles of the world, that the Signal Corps rendered services of incalculable value, exceeding the more spectacular work at Allatoona.

June 24, 1863, Lieutenant Fisher reported from the signal station at Maryland Heights: "Large trains are crossing at Sharpsburg. Artillery and general trains are passing near Charlestown toward Shepherdstown." It was the advance column of Lee's second invasion, which proved to be the turning point of the war. Hooker, then in command, promptly moved his whole army to the Potomac, which disarranged Lee's plans by obliging Stuart's cavalry to make a long detour and broke Lee's communications with Ewell.

In the battles at Gettysburg the Confederates established their chief signal station in the cupola of the Lutheran seminary, which commanded an extended field of operations. The Union Signal Corps was extremely active in gathering information and transmitting orders, and for perhaps the first time in military history the general-in-chief of a large army was kept in communication during active operations with his corps and division commanders.

The most important Union signal station, on the second day of this titanic struggle, was at Little Round Top on the Federal left flank, which commanded a view of the country, occupied by the right of Lee's army. Heavy was the price paid for flag-work at this point where the men were exposed to the fierce shrapnel of artillery and the deadly bullet of Confederate sharpshooters in Devil's Den. On or beside this signal station, on a bare rock about ten feet square, seven men were killed or seriously wounded.



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SIGNALING FROM THE COBB'S HILL TOWER, BY THE
APPOMATTOX, 1864

With rash gallantry Captain James A. Hall held his ground, and on July 2d, at the most critical phase of the struggle, signaled to Meade's headquarters: "A heavy column of enemy's infantry, about ten thousand, is moving from opposite our extreme left toward our right."

General Warren hastened by Meade's order to Little Round Top to investigate. He says: "There were no troops on it (Little Round Top) and it was used as a signal station. I saw that this was the key of the whole position. This motion revealed to me the enemy's line of battle, already formed and far outflanking our troops. . . . The discovery was intensely thrilling and almost appalling." After narrating how he asked Meade for troops, Warren continues: "While I was still alone with the signal officer, the musket balls began to fly around us, and he was about to fold up his flags and withdraw, but remained, at my request, and kept them waving in defiance." This action saved the day for the Federals as Warren declares, and confirmatory is the report of General E. P. Alexander, C. S. A., commanding Lee's reserve artillery. He says: "The two Round Tops overlooked everything, and a signal flag was visible on the highest. I was particularly cautioned (by Longstreet) in moving the artillery to keep it out of sight of the signal station upon Round Top. . . . That wretched little station upon Round Top caused one of our divisions to lose over two hours, and probably delayed our assault nearly that long. During that time a Federal Corps arrived near Round Top."

The system around Vicksburg was such as to keep Grant fully informed of the efforts of the Confederates to disturb his communications in the rear, and also insured the fullest coöperation between the Mississippi flotilla and his army. Judicious in praise, Grant's commendation of his signal officer speaks best for the service. Messages were constantly exchanged with the fleet, the final one of the siege being flagged as follows



HEADQUARTERS OF THE CONFEDERATE SIGNAL CORPS
AT GETTYSBURG

(In the cupola of the Lutheran Seminary)

on the morning of July 4th: "4.30 A.M. 4: 1863. Admiral Porter: The enemy has accepted in the main my terms of capitulation and will surrender the city, works and garrison at 10 A.M. . . . U. S. GRANT, Major-General, Commanding."

The fleets of Farragut and Porter, while keeping the Mississippi open, carried signal officers to enable them to communicate with the army, their high masts and lofty trees enabling signals to be exchanged great distances. Doubtless the loftiest perch thus used during the war was that on the United States Steamship *Richmond*, one of Farragut's fleet at Port Hudson. The *Richmond* was completely disabled by the central Confederate batteries while attempting to run past Port Hudson, her signal officer working meanwhile in the main top. As the running of the batteries was thus found to be too dangerous, the vessel dropped back and the signal officer suggested that he occupy the very tip of the highest mast for his working perch, which was fitted up, one hundred and sixty-five feet above the water. From this great height it was barely possible to signal over the highland occupied by the foe, and thus maintain uninterrupted communica-

tion and essential coöperation between the fleets of the central and lower Mississippi.

The most dramatic use of Signal Corps was connected with the successful defense of Allatoona, Sherman's reserve depot, in which were stored three millions of rations, practically undefended, as it was a distance in the rear of the army. Realizing the utmost importance of the railroad north of Marietta and of the supplies to Sherman, Hood threw Stewart's Corps in the rear of the Union army, and French's division of about sixty-five hundred men was detached to capture Allatoona. With the Confederates intervening and telegraph lines destroyed, all would have been lost but for the Signal Corps station on Kenesaw Mountain.



SIGNAL CORPS HEADQUARTERS IN AUGUST, 1862, NEAR HARRISON'S LANDING, VA.

Corse was at Rome thirty-six miles beyond Allatoona. From Vining's Station the message was flagged over the heads of the foe to Allatoona by way of Kenesaw and thence telegraphed to Corse, as follows: "General Corse: Sherman directs that you move forward and join Smith's division with your entire command, using cars if to be had, and burn provisions rather than lose them. General Vandever." At the same time a message was sent to Allatoona: "Sherman is moving with force. *Hold Out*"; and again: "*Hold On*. General Sherman says he is working hard for you."

Sherman was at Kenesaw all day, October 5th, having learned of the arrival of Corse that morning, and anxiously watched the

progress of the battle. That afternoon came an unsigned despatch from Allatoona, sent during the engagement: "We are all right so far. Corse is wounded." Next morning Dayton, Sherman's assistant-adjudant-general, asked how Corse was and he answered: "I am short a cheekbone and an ear, but able to whip all h—yet." That the fight was desperate is shown by Corse's losses, seven hundred and five killed and wounded, and two hundred captured out of an effective force of about fifteen hundred.

An amusing application of signal stores was made at the siege of Knoxville, when Longstreet attacked at dawn. Sending up a signal by roman candles to indicate the point of attack, the signal officer followed it by discharging the candles toward the charging Confederates, which not only disconcerted some of them, but made visible the advancing lines and made possible more accurate fire by the Union artillery.

While at Missionary Ridge the following message was flagged at a critical point: "Sherman: Thomas has carried the hill in his immediate front. Now is the time to attack with vigor. *Do so*. Grant." Other signal work of value intervened between Missionary Ridge and Allatoona so that the Signal Corps was placed even more to the front in the Atlanta campaign and during the March to the Sea.

The Confederates had changed their cipher key,

but Sherman's indefatigable officers ascertained the new key from intercepted messages, thus giving the general much important information.

Several stations for observation were established in high trees, some more than a hundred feet from the ground, from which were noted the movements of the various commands, of wagon-trains, railroad cars, etc. Hood's gallant sortie from Atlanta was detected at its very start, and despite the severity of the fight, during which one flagman was killed, messages were sent throughout the battle—even over the heads of the foe.

Of importance, though devoid of danger, the final messages on arrival at Savannah were one ordering, by flag, the immediate

assault on Fort McAllister by Hazen, with the soldierly answer: "I am ready and will assault at once," and the other announcing to the expectant fleet that Sherman had completed the famous march to the sea with his army in excellent condition.

In the approaches and siege of Petersburg the work of the Signal Corps was almost entirely that of telescopic reconnoitering. While an occasional high tree was used for a perch, yet the country was so heavily timbered that signal towers were necessary. There were nearly a dozen lines of communication and a hundred separate stations. The most notable towers were Cobb's Hill, one hundred and twenty-five feet; Crow's Nest, one hundred and twenty-six feet, and Peeble's Farm, one hundred and forty-five feet, which commanded views of Petersburg, its approaches, railways, camps and fortifications. Cobb's Hill, on Appomattox, was particularly irritating and caused the construction of an advance Confederate earthwork a mile distant, from which fully two hundred and fifty shot and shell were fired against the tower in a single day—with slight damage, however. Similar efforts were made to destroy Crow's Nest.

At General Meade's headquarters a signal party had a unique experience—fortunately not fatal, though thrilling in the extreme. A signal platform was built in a tree where, from a height of seventy-five feet, the Confederate right flank position could be seen far to the rear. Whenever important movements were in progress this station naturally drew a heavy fire, to prevent signal work. As the men were charged to hold fast at all hazards, descending only after two successive shots at them, they became accustomed in time to sharpshooting, but the shriek of shell was more nerve-racking. On one occasion several shots whistled harmlessly by, and then came a violent shock which nearly dislodged platform, men and instruments. A solid shot, partly spent, striking fairly, had buried itself in the tree half-way between the platform and the ground.



SIGNALING ACROSS THE POTOMAC, CENTRAL STATION, WASHINGTON

When Petersburg fell, field flag work began again, and the first Union messages from Richmond were sent from the roof of the Confederate Capitol. In the field the final order of importance flagged by the Corps was as follows: "Farmville, April 7, 1865. General Meade: Order Fifth Corps to follow the Twenty-fourth at 6 A.M. up the Lynchburg road. The Second and Sixth to follow the enemy north of the river. U. S. Grant, Lieutenant-General."

When the flag of the signal camp was struck in 1865 at Red Hill, Colonel Myer, then a civilian, was present, realizing that his labors had not been in vain. Then, as the poet sang of "The Flag That Talks,"

Thy work is done; along Virginia's river
No more thy signal flies;
By Georgia's hills by night no more the quiver
Of thy red torch shall rise.



THE PREVENTION OF FOREST FIRES

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL

FOREST FIRES

The great annual destruction of forests by fire is an injury to all persons and industries. The welfare of every community is dependent upon a cheap and plentiful supply of timber, and a forest cover is the most effective means of preventing floods and maintaining a regular flow of streams used for irrigation and other useful purposes.

To prevent forest fires Congress passed the law approved May 5, 1900, which—

Forbids setting fire to the woods, and

Forbids leaving any fires unextinguished.

This law, for offenses against which officers of the FOREST SERVICE can arrest without warrant, provides as maximum punishment—

A fine of \$5,000, or imprisonment for two years, or both, if a fire is set maliciously, and

A fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for one year, or both, if fire results from carelessness.

It also provides that the money from such fines shall be paid to the school fund of the county in which the offense is committed.

The Exercise of Care With Small Fires is the Best Preventive of Large Ones. Therefore all persons are requested—

1. Not to drop matches or burning tobacco where there is inflammable material.

2. Not to build larger camp fires than are necessary.

3. Not to build fires in leaves, rotten wood, or other places where they are likely to spread.

4. In windy weather and in dangerous places, to dig holes or clear the ground to confine camp fires.

5. To extinguish all fires completely before leaving them, even for a short absence.

6. Not to build fires against large or hollow logs, where it is difficult to extinguish them.

7. Not to build fires to clear land without informing the nearest officer of the FOREST SERVICE, so that he may assist in controlling them.

This notice is posted for your benefit and the good of every resident of the region. You are requested to co-operate in preventing its removal or defacement, which acts are punishable by law.

JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

THIS notice carries to the intelligent camper a world of meaning. Setting forth two entirely separate, almost antagonistic, statements, it expresses in brief the whole policy of the Federal Forest Service with regard to camping parties and travelers in the National Forests. The Act of Congress *forbids* setting fire to the woods and *forbids* leaving any fires unextinguished, and provides *fines* of \$5,000 and \$1,000, or *imprisonment*, or both; and the Forest Service *advises* the exercise of care with small fires as a preventive against large ones, and *requests* people not to drop matches in the woods, nor to build larger fires than are necessary, nor to do other things which the amateur woodman might well overlook as unimportant. The information is given for "your benefit" and you are even asked in kindly terms to protect the notice.

Any spirit of antagonism aroused or any sting felt at the implied threat is immediately obliterated by the appeal for coöperation and assistance which follows. And into every forest ranger and guard is instilled the wisdom and necessity of acting up to the spirit of the notice. The careless but well-meaning camper or traveler is not to be threatened with fines and imprisonment; rather his aid is asked in helping the forest guards to combat the common foe, Fire; to suggest the danger to any other camper whom he may chance to meet, and to sound the alarm in case a fire is discovered. Further the forest officers are always ready with friendly suggestions as to the best camping places and water supplies, and information as to trails and routes of travel, and various other points which may be of interest or value to the sojourner in Uncle Sam's great domain of National Forests. Withal it requires eternal vigilance on the part of the forest guards to prevent fires, and many of them, as the result of careless camping, even with the spirit of coöperation which is abroad.

Last year was an unusual fire year owing to the extremely dry conditions during the summer in various parts of the country, and it is quite certain that many more than a thousand forest fires were started by campers. No statistics are available for the entire country, but in the 191,000,000 acres of National Forests alone, which is perhaps one-fourth of the total forest area of the country, 688 forest fires were caused by campers.

FOREST FIRES!

EXTINGUISH CAMP FIRES! REPORT FIRES TO FOREST OFFICERS!

To prevent fires Congress passed the law approved May 5, 1900, which—

Forbids setting fire to the woods, and

Forbids leaving any fires unextinguished.

This law, for offenses against which officers of the FOREST SERVICE can arrest without warrant, provides as maximum punishment—

A fine of \$5,000, or imprisonment for two years, or both, if a fire is set maliciously, and

A fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for one year, or both, if fire results from carelessness.

It also provides that the money from such fines shall be paid to the school fund of the county in which the offense is committed.

JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.

REWARD FOREST FIRES

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
September 23, 1910.

Hereafter, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1911, unless otherwise ordered, and thereafter, provided Congress shall make the necessary appropriation or authorize the payment thereof, the Department of Agriculture will pay the following rewards:

First. Not exceeding \$250, and not less than \$50, for information leading to the arrest and conviction of any person, in any United States court, on the charge of willfully and maliciously setting on fire, or causing to be set on fire, any timber, underbrush, or grass upon the lands of the United States within a National Forest.

Second. Not exceeding \$100, and not less than \$25, for information leading to the arrest and conviction of any person, in any United States court, on the charge of building a fire on lands of the United States within a National Forest, in or near any forest timber or other inflammable material, and leaving said fire before the same has been totally extinguished.

Third. All officers and employees of the Department of Agriculture are barred from receiving reward for information leading to the arrest and conviction of any person or persons committing either of the above offenses.

Fourth. The Department of Agriculture reserves the right to refuse payment of any claim for reward when, in its opinion, there has been collusion or improper methods have been used to secure the arrest and conviction thereunder, and to allow only one reward where several persons have been convicted of the same offense or where one person has been convicted of several offenses, unless the circumstances entitle the claimant to a reward on each such conviction.

These rewards will be paid to the person or persons giving the information leading to such arrests and convictions upon presentation to the Department of Agriculture of satisfactory documentary evidence thereof, subject to the necessary appropriation, as aforesaid, or otherwise, as may be provided by law.

Applications for reward, made in pursuance of this notice, should be forwarded to the Forester, Washington, D. C., but a claim will not be entertained unless presented within three months from the date of conviction of an offender.

In order that all claimants for reward may have an opportunity to present their claims within the prescribed limit, the Department will not take action for three months from date of conviction of an offender.

(Signed) **JAMES WILSON,**
Secretary of Agriculture.

Against this rather startling record, however, can undoubtedly be charged many fires extinguished by campers either directly or through information given the authorities.

Thousands of the above notices are posted throughout the National Forests, in English, Italian, French, and Spanish. One of them states that a reward will be paid of from \$50 to \$250 for information leading to the arrest and conviction of any person who willfully and maliciously causes a forest fire; but the honest camper can take no umbrage at this. On the other hand, he finds such notices as this posted at various points in the forest:

FLATHEAD NATIONAL FOREST

8 MILES TO GORDON PASS →

← 30 MILES TO SWAN LAKE.

OR

ROUND LAKE CAMP.

TRAVELERS ARE URGED TO USE EVERY CARE WITH FIRE, AND TO LEAVE THE GROUNDS IN NEAT CONDITION FOR THE USE OF OTHERS.

NEXT CAMPING PLACE

12 MILES

JOHN SMITH, SUPERVISOR.

Other signs mark the boundary of the National Forest and indicate on the accompanying township plat the location of the

sign. Still other signs indicate the boundaries of national game preserves which have been set aside for the protection of game animals and birds and their breeding places, and warning the traveler against hunting, killing and trapping within such preserves.

The aim of the National Forest Service is to facilitate recreation in the use of the National Forests by the thousands of camping parties which annually enter them. What are practically permanent camps are permitted, even encouraged. It is recognized that the man who makes a National Forest his annual camping place and even builds a substantial cabin will surely become a protector of that forest, a natural ally of the forest guard. No limit is placed on hunting and fishing in the National Forests or the proper cutting and use of wood by campers and travelers. Settlers and mining prospectors are accorded free stumpage up to \$20 value.

That game animals really exist in the National Forests is shown by the Forest Service records. Where flesh eating animals abound there are usually to be found the ruminants—deer, elk and other game—and during the last two years the Forest Service guards and hunters have killed 379 bears, 194 mountain lions, 1740 wild cats, 212 lynxes, 483 wolves and 10,452 coyotes.

(Form 125)

THIS MARKS THE OF THE NATIONAL FOREST.

By authority of Congress, the President of the United States has established this National Forest for the purpose of preserving a perpetual supply of timber for home industries, preventing destruction of the forest cover which regulates the flow of streams, and protecting local residents from unfair competition in the use of range and forest. It is patrolled and protected, at Government expense, for the benefit of the community and the home builder.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING NATIONAL FORESTS.

Except by campers and travelers, timber may not be cut without proper authority. Settlers, prospectors, and similar small consumers can obtain free permits from forest rangers or supervisors for timber or stone for their own use. Large consumers are required to purchase.

Persons wishing to graze stock other than riding, pack, or team animals, or to cross the forest with herds of sheep, cattle, or horses, must secure permission from the Supervisor.

Permission must be secured for the construction or permanent occupation of buildings, roads, reservoirs, or similar improvements within the Forest.

The mining laws apply within National Forests exactly as on the public domain; hence, prospecting, mining, and the location of mineral claims are not interfered with.

Officers of the FOREST SERVICE are required by Act of Congress to assist in the enforcement of all local game laws.

FOREST FIRES.

All persons are requested to cooperate in the prevention of forest fires, especially by exercising care with camp fires. Officers of the FOREST SERVICE are empowered to arrest without warrant any person who either sets fire to the woods or leaves a fire unextinguished.

For further information concerning National Forests, address the Supervisor of this Forest or The Forester, Forest Service, Washington, D. C.

JAMES WILSON,
Secretary of Agriculture.



A CAMP ON SKAGIT RIVER, WASHINGTON NATIONAL FOREST

The excellence of the National Forest patrol, considering the enormous area covered, is shown by the fact that in 1909 of the 2728 fires reported, 2089 were confined to an area of less than five acres each. In 1910, probably the greatest fire year in history, there were 5201 fires in the National Forests of which 3164 covered from less than one acre to not over five acres.

With a total estimated forest fire loss for the entire country last year ranging from \$150,000,000 to \$200,000,000 and causing the death of several hundred persons, uneasy indeed must rest the knowledge upon any woodsman, experienced or amateur, that he caused a fire which may have contributed to this loss of life and property. On the other hand, the man who extinguished an incipient fire may take just pride in the act.

The way to prevent big fires, as Chief Forester Graves says, is to put them out while they are small. If people are careful not to start fires, or if in case fires do start there are enough people available to fight them, they will gain no headway. The Forest Service in its posted notice lays down a few simple rules to keep in mind when in the woods and particularly requests in case of fire that the forest guards be notified. If the fire has not gained too large headway it may be very possible to check and extinguish it, always remembering that fire runs rapidly up a slope, burns slowly on the crest, and travels down hill yet more slowly. Many an incipient fire has been put out by a single guard or ranger, or an experienced

camper, using his blanket, or a green branch for beating the fire or throwing on loose earth or sand.

An ordinary camping party, under the direction of a cool head, should be able to render a good account of a very considerable fire. The following advice from Chief Forester Graves shows, however, that to do this may be no child's play, and that it calls for judgment as well as boldness:

7-25-10
4-10-11

CAMP.

Travelers are urged to use every care with fire, and to leave the grounds in neat condition for the use of others.

NEXT CAMPING PLACE:

←

→

MILES

Supervisor

Sometimes the front of the fire is so fierce that it is impossible to meet it directly. One method under such circumstances is to direct the course of the fire. The attack is made on the sides near the front, separating the forward portion of the fire from the main wings. A part of the crew attacks the forward part and others run down and extinguish the wings. The front of the fire, attacked from the sides, is forced gradually and constantly into a narrower path. Usually the front can be directed toward some cleared space, road, pond, stream, swamp, or fire line, when it

will be checked enough to admit of a direct front attack. Sometimes by this plan the front may be rapidly narrowed by working from the sides, until it is at last entirely extinguished. The plan of giving direction to the course of the fire has often been successfully carried out when the fighting crew is too small for a direct attack.

When fires gain such headway that it is impossible to stop them by direct attack, back-firing becomes the only means of stopping the fire. It should, however, be used only when it is absolutely necessary. One of the commonest mistakes in fighting fires is to overestimate the rapidity of the fire and the difficulty of putting it out. A forest fire is always a frightening spectacle, particularly if it is sweeping in the direction of one's own property. Men often become excited and start back-fires when it is entirely unnecessary. Back-firing necessarily involves deliberately burning over property. When this belongs to another person and one's own forest seems in danger, there is a great temptation to sacrifice it.

If it is found that a back-fire is necessary, a favorable point is selected directly in front of the fire, from which to set the new fire. This must be a point where it is safe to start a back-fire, such as a road, fire line, stream, or swamp. The leaves are ignited at points five feet to a rod apart for a distance not greater than the estimated width of the fire. These small fires gradually meet and form a

continuous line, eating back against the wind. A part of the crew is stationed across the road or other break from which the back-fire is started and put out at once the small fires which may result from the sparks blown over from the back-fire.

The meeting of the two fires stops at once the head of the main fire. It is usually possible then to attack the wings with the ordinary methods of fighting. It is necessary to attack the wings at once, particularly if there is a strong wind; for otherwise each wing of the old fire would soon form an independent fire with a well-developed head. It is necessary, also, that men be stationed where the original fire and the back-fire meet in order to extinguish smoldering fires in tops, logs, and other débris.

"A fire is never out," says Mr. Graves, "until the last spark is extinguished. Often a log or snag will smolder unnoticed after the flames have apparently been conquered, only to break out afresh with a rising wind. After the fire-fighting party has left the ground it is always well to assign at least one man to patrol the edges of the burned area until it is certain that the fire is entirely out."



WHERE A NEGLECTED CAMP-FIRE MIGHT SWEEP A MOUNTAINSIDE

(Scene in the Clearwater National Forest, Idaho)



FORESTER WITH SADDLE-BLANKET HEADING A FIRE JUST ENTERING YELLOW-PINE TIMBER
IN THE WALLOWA NATIONAL FOREST

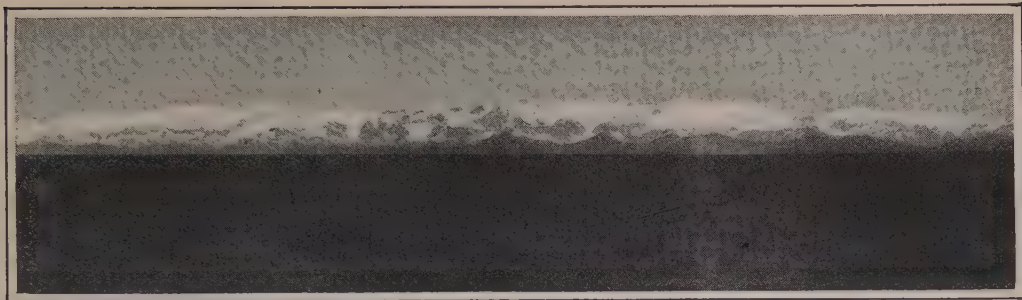
Mr. Graves is convinced that the telephone is the greatest aid in fire patrolling. By the use of the telephones he says, millions of dollars have doubtless already been saved. Since 1906 the Forest Service has built over 5,000 miles of telephone lines. One of a type of National Forest placards states:

IN CASE OF FIRE PLEASE PROMPTLY NOTIFY
BAIGRIE SUTHERLAND, BIG RUN, MONT., P. O.
ADDRESS, BIG RIVER, MONT., TELEGRAPH
ADDRESS. (WIRE COLLECT)
SWAN LAKE; RANGER STATION TELEPHONE.

The smoke signal is a substitute commonly employed when the telephone is not available. A small fire is started on some prominent elevation. Damp moss or earth is used

to deaden it and develop a heavy smoke. A blanket or other covering is thrown over the top to smother the smoke for a brief interval. The blanket is then raised and a dense puff of smoke is released, the process being repeated until attention is attracted. A most valuable thing to know is the code of the Army Signal Corps, a signal system which might well be learned by every camper or woodman. It can be used to great advantage in talking at long range, in the day time with a white cloth tied to a pole, as a flag, and at night with a torch. It is so simple that it can be learned in a day, although considerable practice is necessary in order to make it of practical use. As it is based on the Morse telegraphic alphabet, many people not campers can read it, for example all telegraph operators.





THE SNOWFIELDS NORTH OF PRINCE WILLIAM SOUND, ALASKA, WHICH COVER THE MOUNTAINS AND SUPPLY COLUMBIA GLACIER AND MANY OTHER ICE TONGUES

(Photographed in summer from a distance of about seventy-five miles. In front of the loftiest mountain, Florence Peak, is the fiord containing Columbia Glacier)

COLUMBIA GLACIER,—ALASKA'S TYPICAL ICE TONGUE

BY LAWRENCE MARTIN

(Department of Geology and Geography, University of Wisconsin)

GLACIERS are found to-day in those parts of the world having sufficient snowfall and cool enough temperature so that the snow of a winter does not all melt during the summer. The accumulated snow is gradually compacted into ice and slowly slides down mountain slopes and gathers in the valleys. The valleys then have tongues of ice, or glaciers, which move slowly down toward the sea. The most favorable places for the formation of glaciers are in the polar regions and on high mountains; and the largest glaciers in the world are (a) on the land mass which surrounds the South Pole; (b) in Greenland and Iceland; and (c) on mountains in the temperate zone which rise to a sufficient height, as the Alps, the Himalayas, the Rocky Mountains of Canada and the United States, and many others do. Even on the equator there are small glaciers, as in the Andes of South America and certain mountains of Central Africa. Norway has glaciers because it is moderately high and has much snow and a cool climate, but the ice masses there are not as large as those in the higher mountains of New Zealand, southern South America, and Alaska.

All of Alaska does not have glaciers, for a large part of the interior and the northern portion is not very high and does not have sufficient snowfall, in excess of summer melting, to nourish glaciers. Much of the southeastern coast of Alaska is both high and has heavy snowfall, and in these portions are the

largest glaciers in the world outside the polar regions. These ice tongues include the Muir and Taku glaciers near Sitka and Juneau, the Malaspina Glacier near Mt. St. Elias, many ice tongues near Mt. McKinley, and others in Prince William Sound and on the Copper River, which the writer has had the privilege of studying for several years under the auspices of the National Geographic Society of Washington.

THE SNOWFIELDS AND THE GLACIER

From Prince William Sound a great mountain range is seen, looming up to the north, with all its peaks which rise above a level of 3000 feet wrapped in perpetual snow. In the opening illustration, a photograph taken from a distance of nearly seventy-five miles, one of these mountains, Florence Peak, rises higher than any of the others, reaching an elevation of nearly 12,000 feet within a short distance of sea level. Near the base of it there is a fiord, Columbia Bay, at the head of which is the Columbia Glacier. This ice tongue will be described as a typical glacier. The snow cap upon these mountains throughout the summer shows that they contain glaciers. Even before reaching the fiord it is evident that some of the glaciers extend down to sea level, for a few icebergs float from Columbia Bay into Prince William Sound, where they are often seen from steamships. Not all glaciers are large enough to extend down to

sea level, as in this case. In the Alps they terminate in the mountain valleys several hundred feet above sea level, and those on the high mountains of tropical and equatorial regions end many thousand feet above the sea.

Some of the snowfields which supply the ice of Columbia Glacier are shown in the second picture, as well as the broad, gently sloping surface of this river of ice. In the right background is Florence Peak, 11,900 feet high, which is covered with snow except where the slopes are too steep. All of the peaks in this photograph, and many others, have snowfields which are supplying the Columbia Glacier, which is approximately twenty-five miles long and has a width of from three to four miles. The surface slopes at a moderate rate and most of the glacier is made up of clean white ice. It is striped, however, by two dark bands, one on the extreme left of the view, the other crossing the middle close to the nearer side of the glacier. This band is separated from the margin by a band of clean ice and by a broader dark band which is made up of ice so completely covered with rock fragments that it does not appear to be part of the glacier at all. This dark margin is all made up of ice, however, and the rock fragments form only a thin veneer upon its surface, as one sees when he walks over it. This marginal belt and the dark bands in the glacier are moraines, the material of which they are made being rocks

and dirt which the glacier is transporting from the mountains. Glaciers are important agents of transportation and a relatively clean ice tongue like Columbia Glacier carries a heavy load of rock in the lower layers. While the glacier is moving actively this material does not appear upon the surface except in the narrow moraines.

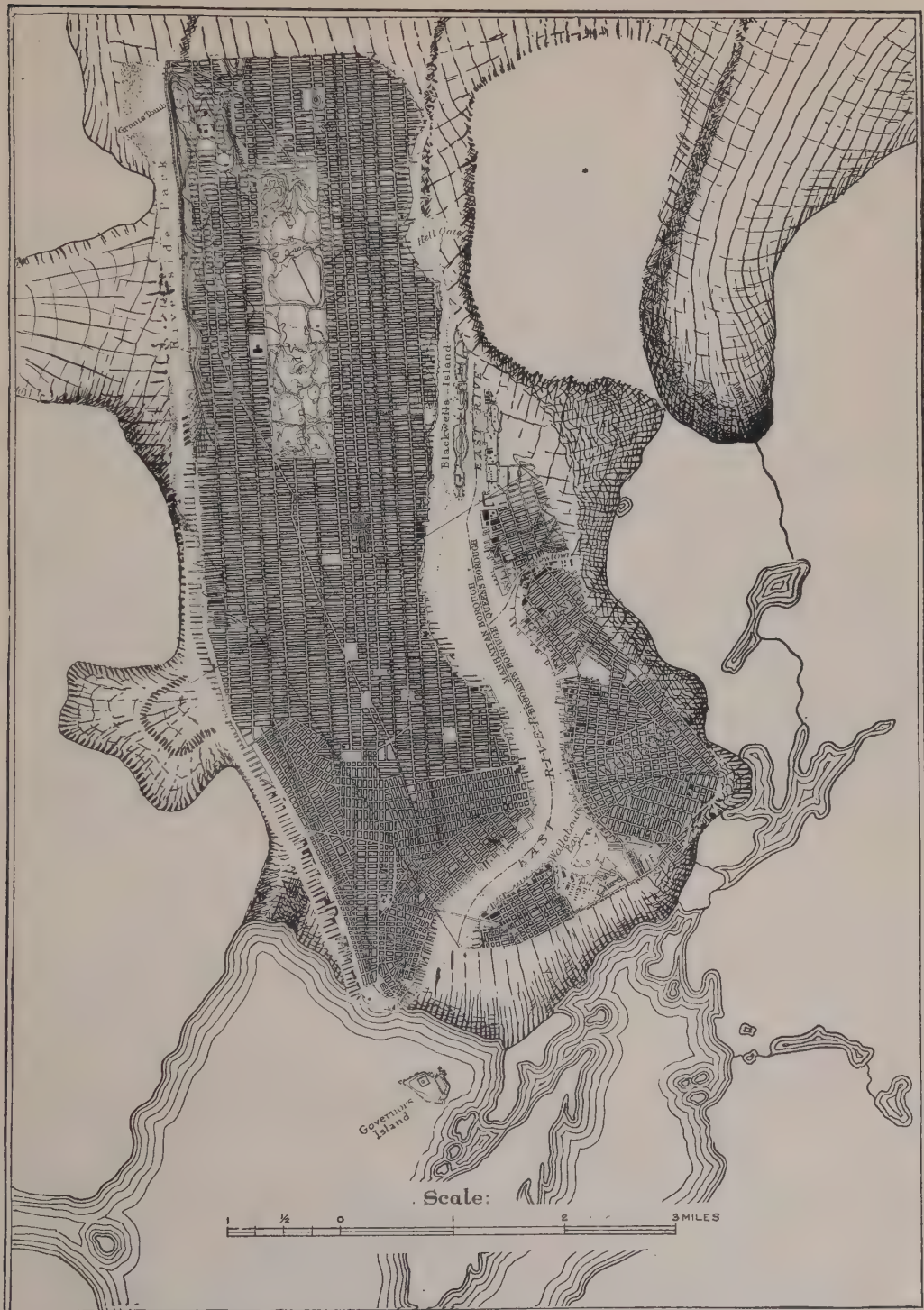
THE MAGNITUDE OF COLUMBIA GLACIER

The great size of an ice tongue, like this one, cannot be appreciated from a mere photograph. One would not imagine that much of the glacier surface seen in the picture is over twice as wide as Manhattan Island, or that the whole of New York City could be placed upon the lower portion of Columbia Glacier, as is shown in the illustration on the facing page.

This map, upon which all but the upper end of Manhattan Island has been drawn carefully to scale, shows that if Grant's Tomb were near the center of the previous photograph, the Battery would be at the terminus of Columbia Glacier, with Brooklyn Navy Yard near the eastern, and Hoboken and Jersey City near the western margin. The glaciers of the Alps and of the Canadian Rockies and Selkirks do not attain such dimensions. All of the glaciers of Switzerland combined do not cover as much area or contain as much ice as this lower portion of Columbia Glacier. The largest glacier in Switzerland, the Aletsch, is



THE SNOWFIELDS AND THE COLUMBIA GLACIER WITH ITS MORAINES AND A MARGINAL LAKE



MAP OF THE BOROUGHS OF MANHATTAN AND BROOKLYN, NEW YORK CITY, SUPERIMPOSED ON THE LOWER PORTION OF COLUMBIA GLACIER

(The Battery at the terminus of the glacier, with Brooklyn Navy Yard near the eastern and Hoboken and Jersey City near the western margin)

smaller than the little branch of Columbia Glacier shown on the right in the diagram, and most of the well-known ice tongues of the Alps, like the Mer de Glace, Rhone, and Gornier Glaciers, are no wider than Central Park, which would occupy a very small portion of the width of Columbia Glacier. Yet this is not one of the largest ice tongues in Alaska, which has a single glacier larger than Rhode Island, Malaspina Glacier, fed by many tributaries of the magnitude of Columbia Glacier.

Imagine yourself on Governor's Island. The accompanying photograph of Columbia

terminus. It is of interest to know what becomes of the ice. The photograph on the facing page is a more intimate view of a portion of the ice cliff. From a distance it seems like an alabaster precipice, but, on approaching it, one sees its great irregularity and that it is riven by giant cracks. Within these cracks the ice assumes beautiful tints of blue and green. These cracks, or crevasses, are due to the rapid movement of the brittle upper layers of the glacier. The apparently smooth surface of the glacier is also broken by them into a million blocks or



THE ICE CLIFF AT THE FRONT OF COLUMBIA GLACIER, WITH HEIGHT SHOWN BY COMPARISON WITH A STEAMSHIP

Glacier was taken from a point about as far from the front of the glacier as the diagram shows Governor's Island to be from the Battery, the tip of Manhattan Island. Suppose that instead of lofty office-buildings you saw the terminal cliff of Columbia Glacier, sinuous and with a tidal frontage of nearly three miles. In the last quarter-mile the glacier descends 500 feet, terminating in vertical cliffs over 200 feet high. Off the front of the glacier the water is 600 feet deep, so that the ocean steamship in the photograph was able to go fairly close to the ice cliff. This gives a more adequate appreciation of the magnitude of a glacier.

WHAT BECOMES OF THE ICE

The end of the glacier may maintain a fairly constant position, despite the fact that ice is constantly being carried forward to the

serac, so that one could not possibly cross the Columbia Glacier or traverse its surface except near the margins. Because of these crevasses the front of the glacier has great towers and spires, of which the one in the photograph is a fair sample. Five minutes after this photograph was taken the ice tower fell. It was about two hundred feet high. It broke into scores of fragments, some also rising from below the surface. These float into the bay as icebergs, and melt, the smaller ones stranding upon the beaches at low tide and melting there, or being rolled over the beach and ground up by the waves, like the ones that splashed over twenty feet up the beach when the ice pinnacle crumbled and fell. By this discharge of icebergs the terminus of a glacier is often kept from advancing. When ice tongues end on the land they melt slowly and in the course of time give rise to great glacial streams.



THE PINNACLE OF ICE AT THE FRONT OF COLUMBIA GLACIER WHICH FELL FIVE MINUTES AFTER THIS PHOTOGRAPH WAS TAKEN

THE MOVEMENT OF GLACIERS

Columbia Glacier is steadily moving, yet the motion is imperceptible, like that of the hour hand of a clock. Its rate is not known exactly but it may be approximately ten feet a day. From August, 1909, to June, 1910, the front of the glacier advanced 600 feet, or about two feet a day. This is much less than the actual rate of movement, for some ice was taken from the front by the discharge of icebergs. The glacier moves faster in the middle than on the sides. The rates vary in different glaciers and in the same glacier from time to time. Thus, another glacier in Alaska was moving at the rate of about six feet a day, in the middle, in 1909, but its motion at the side was imperceptible. A year later its motion at the same point on the margin had increased to from two to eight feet a day, while in the middle it probably attained thirty feet a day. Columbia Glacier was moving very slowly in 1899 compared with 1909 and 1910. As a result the margin had a considerable advance, in 1909, far in excess of iceberg discharge, with the result shown in the two photographs occupying the next page. The actual advance from some time after 1899 to

1909 was over 1200 feet and probably over half this forward movement came during the last two months. During the following ten months this slow-moving marginal portion of the glacier advanced 340 feet more. Earlier it had been less active and had retreated by melting back of the terminus. Some glaciers in Alaska are so inactive that soil has accumulated upon their surfaces and forests have grown to maturity upon the ice. Such glaciers are stagnant but not dead, and we have seen several renew activity in a single year, swallowing up the dirt in crevasses, and destroying the forests.

THE EFFECTS OF ADVANCES OF GLACIERS

When the tidal portion of a glacier advances it produces no marked effects, except to lengthen the glacier. When the portion of a glacier ending on the land advances there may be more spectacular effects. The sides of Columbia Glacier and the portion of its terminus which rests upon an island show these effects very well indeed. The low, sloping margin, easy to ascend, is transformed into a jagged, precipitous cliff, often with deep crevasses. The morainic material of



TWO PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE MARGIN OF COLUMBIA GLACIER FROM THE SAME SITE,
TEN YEARS APART

(Showing advance from 1899 [upper view] to 1909 [lower view] and 1910 [line on lower view] and destruction of forest at margin. The advance in ten years was about 1200 feet; in ten months, during 1909 and 1910, it was 340 feet more)

the margin falls into these cracks, so that a dark ice edge may be quickly transformed to a clean one, as in the lower photograph. As in that case also a barren zone (upper picture) may be overridden during the lateral spreading so that the glacier advances into the forest and destroys trees of several centuries' growth.

This is well shown in the advance of Columbia Glacier on the island, where the terminus is shown in the concluding picture. Some trees are knocked down and overridden, some are moved along bodily in front of the glacier. Peaty soil may be rolled up into great bolsters, as in this last photograph. Drainage may be obstructed and lakes formed. Great ridges of dirt and rocks may be pushed up into terminal moraines, which do not usually contain ice, as the medial and lateral moraines on the surface of the glacier do. The terminal moraine shown in this photograph is exactly like those which the vanished ice sheets of the northern and central United States have left in different parts of the regions in which we live.

The existing ice tongues of various parts of the world tell us much about the origin of features of topography, soil, and drainage, in places where there are no glaciers now. In

Alaska they have important relationships to present-day life. The smooth or slightly crevassed ones have sometimes been used as highways. The severely crevassed ice tongues are barriers. Gold-seeking prospectors have overcome many of these difficulties and traversed the glaciers successfully, but much labor has been expended and many lives lost in making use of the glacier highways. In one part of Alaska the glaciers occupy so large a part of a valley that a railway has been built over the low, almost motionless, outer portions of two glaciers. Several rivers have impassable rapids because of constriction by glaciers. Some of the placer gold of Alaska is in glacial gravels, and melting ice tongues furnish the water for sluicing and hydraulic operations in several gold camps. Icebergs from some tidewater glaciers form a menace to navigation, but erosion by glaciers has excavated the deep navigable fiords in Alaska. Glacier ice is used for packing fish in southeastern Alaska. The Columbia Glacier has few of these relationships, but it displays the typical features of an active glacier. Many of the similar ice tongues in Alaska are now accessible to travelers by steamship and railway.



COLUMBIA GLACIER ADVANCING OVER AN ISLAND

(Overturning trees and carrying them forward, rolling peaty soil up into great bolsters, and building a terminal moraine)



GROUNDS OF THE NEW YORK STATE PRISON FOR WOMEN AT AUBURN

THE CARE OF WOMEN IN STATE PRISONS

BY JEANNE ROBERT

AS early as the year 1817 Elizabeth Fry demanded for women prisoners: religious instruction in prison, classification, employment, and the *exclusive care of women by women*. After a delay of nearly one hundred years these reforms have been instituted in nearly all women's prisons. Notable among these beneficent, reformatory institutions are the State Prison for Women at Auburn, N. Y., and the Sherborn Reformatory Prison for Women at South Framingham, Mass.

THE SHERBORN REFORMATORY PRISON FOR WOMEN

The Sherborn prison buildings are situated on a stretch of rolling land, one-half mile from the town of South Framingham. They are built of substantial brick and adorned with clinging vines that creep up-

ward from the glossy lawns. No forbidding walls surround them; they are clean-swept by the winds, with courts and windows open to the health-giving sunshine. Vision is not restricted to "the little patch of blue that prisoners call the sky," the whole firmament is theirs to contemplate. Mrs. Jesse D. Hodder is the warden in charge at Sherborn. Previous to her installation as warden of this penal institution, she had had a long and thorough training in the social department of the Massachusetts General Hospital and in the Lancaster Reform School for Girls. Mrs. Hodder is especially efficient in handling that very difficult social problem—the problem of sex. Through her labors in this department, she has come to understand the lower levels of life, its perverted issues, its degradation. Heart-broken girls facing ma-

ternity without husbands find in her a sympathetic friend. By means of their personal devotion to her, she wins her charges over to a devotion to all that is just and good in life.

"The girls are busy cleaning this morning," explained the pleasant-spoken clerk who was detailed by Mrs. Hodder to guide me about the Sherborn prison buildings. The word "girls" most suitably describes the inmates of that prison, for the majority are between the ages of twenty-five and thirty and so many (more's the pity) under twenty years of age. Women were working in the long halls, scrubbing the woodwork and the floors, splashing the soapy water about in an exuberance of cleanliness. Taken altogether they were as rosy and healthy a group of women as I had ever seen. The women always improve in health at Sherborn, for the system of discipline gives them a regular life, healthful diet, and plentiful exercise. Winter and summer, no matter what their occupation, each must have at least one hour's exercise in the open air. They rise at six o'clock, breakfast at six-thirty, and are at their work by seven. Breakfast is a light meal consisting of bread, cereal, and coffee. For dinner there are soup and meat, three vegetables, a wholesome dessert, and tea or coffee. Supper is another light meal, the left-overs from dinner being utilized with sauce, tea, and coffee. When there is not sufficient work outside to give the

women the proper balance of out-of-door exercise, they are sent into the prison yard to play tag or any game that stirs the blood. The cells are small, airy rooms, furnished with iron beds dressed with white counterpanes.

There are three divisions of dormitories and dining halls. The women enter in second grade and either fall to third or progress to first, according to their good or bad conduct. At present there are no women in the third grade at Sherborn, as the cases that call for severe punishment are most infrequent. With the weak-minded women it is necessary to have extreme patience, but the offenses of this class of prisoners are condoned rather than punished. There is no demoralizing solitary confinement at Sherborn. Every morning after prayers the prisoners may request an interview with the warden, and they also have the privilege of writing a sealed letter to a prison commissioner.

Sherborn has a recreation room for the women,—a cheerful sunny apartment furnished with comfortable chairs, flowering plants, and a plentiful supply of games, books, and magazines. Here during leisure hours the women may amuse themselves quietly in any manner they please. The prison chapel is a fine, large hall, the walls decorated with good engravings and paintings, the platform boasting both organ and piano to furnish music for the religious



THE NURSERY AT SHERBORN



ASSEMBLY HALL FOR FIRST-GRADE PRISONERS AT SHERBORN

(The initials over the door represent a familiar motto at Sherborn, "Try to be good")

services. These services are undenominational and consist of preaching on Sunday and prayer at six o'clock each evening for all who may desire to attend. The prison school gives instruction in both day and evening sessions and at present over one hundred women are enrolled in this department. Many of the women of foreign birth take this opportunity to perfect themselves in the use of English. One grateful outgoing inmate expressed herself as "glad to have come to Sherborn if for no other reason than to learn to read and write." One feature of prison education peculiar to Sherborn is the circulating library of pictures—Copely prints and others of distinct educational value. One picture is placed in each cell and remains there one week; then it passes on to the next cell and is replaced by another. Thus there is a constant change of pictures during the incarceration of the prisoner.

THE INDUSTRIES AT SHERBORN

All the garments worn by women in the penal institutions of Massachusetts are made by the inmates of Sherborn, and also

men's shirts as ordered from the men's prisons. There is a well equipped laundry that takes outside work and a dairy which is a source of profit. In the prison garden vegetables and flowers are grown. The work of gardening has a most salutary effect upon the women—the work in the open, the planting, weeding and gathering of fruits and flowers, pruning trees and shrubs, caring for the lawns, gathering flowers for chapel and dining room, all prevent illness and insensibly give nutriment to hope and aspiration. Most of the women released from Sherborn Prison do well in the situations found for them, often returning to express their gratitude personally. In the report of last year, Miss Elizabeth Quirk, the agent, writes:

In reviewing the work of the past year, and in the face of numerous discouragements, I am gratified at the unusually large number of released prisoners who are doing well, and who are pleased to visit the office to prove their success.

It is surprising to see what a few words of encouragement may often accomplish for a woman who intends to reform.

Many applications from private families for domestics have been filled directly from this office,

and those placed have as a rule proved efficient and trustworthy. As a consequence, the supply does not nearly equal the demand.

It seems desirable and useful to note a few of the many cases which have been most encouraging to one engaged in the work of helping unfortunate women.

M. came from prison in a very hopeless frame of mind, as her husband had taken their two children to an unknown locality. Being a capable worker, she was easily placed in a good paying position, and almost at once began the hunt for her family, which ended in Providence, where the happy meeting occurred. She had worked steadily for several months and provided well for the children, always with the idea of a permanent reunion.

Another girl was placed far from cities, and after two intervals in Boston, where many arrests had caused her to be too well known, she settled down to regular work, which only terminated at the end of two years, when she came home to be married. She is now a useful woman, finding happiness in keeping a good home for her husband and his mother, who is an invalid.

Another former inmate of a prison is the trusted employee of a large hospital, where the memory of her former serious mistake is all but forgotten. Two young women have passed the probationary stage, and expect to finish the course in nursing, and still another has secured a good position as an assistant matron of an institution in another State.

These and many similar instances make the work of helping worth while, for although positions of trust are usually filled by women of blameless reputation, in the cases above quoted the applicants preferred to tell their prospective employers the reason for lack of recommendations, thereby starting the new life honestly, and without dread of future disclosures of past errors.

Many cases may be cited of the women who have abandoned their former mode of living, and



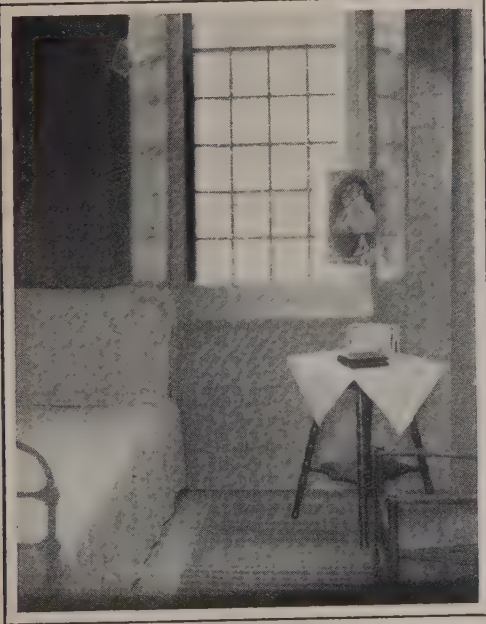
MISS MARY BOYLE O'REILLY
(Prison Commissioner of Massachusetts)

who speak grateful words in acknowledgment of the timely assistance which the State so generously gives.

Seven hundred and forty-two women have been provided for according to their necessities, and, while a few are frequent visitors, it is only fair to state that very many have applied but once.

THE NEW YORK STATE PRISON FOR WOMEN AT AUBURN

Mrs. Anna Welshe, a woman of great charm and personal attractiveness, has charge of the Women's Prison at Auburn, New York. In her own quiet and unobtrusive way she has worked for years to bring about a humane corrective system that should be reformatory not retributive. She believes that the punishment lies in the fact of incarceration; the rest should be scientific justice to the prisoner. The particular reforms that have been instituted during the incumbency of Mrs. Welshe as matron of Auburn Women's Prison, are: the enforcement of classification, the adoption of honor emblems, the numbering of all garments in order to en-



A FIRST-GRADE PRISONER'S ROOM AT AUBURN



WORKSHOP IN THE AUBURN PRISON

(Employment is recognized as one of the cardinal principles of prison management)

able each prisoner to receive her own clothing from the laundry, the abolition of striped dresses for first-grade women, the purchase of new cooking apparatus which enables the kitchens to give more variety in the preparation of food, and the establishing of a comprehensive school system.

The system of "honor emblems" provides that a bar of red cloth be worn on the left sleeve for every year of good conduct in the prison; for every five years of good conduct a star is worn. The emblems are popular as they carry privileges, and their success has proved that a high standard of discipline can be more easily maintained by a system of rewards than by a system of punishment. About one-half of the women at Auburn are colored and a little over one-fourth are foreign born. Three-fourths come from the slums of New York City, and they have, as a rule, little knowledge of industry or country life. Auburn Prison is nominally a State prison, but reformatory measures are carried out there as efficiently as

in the State Reformatories at Albion and Bedford.

THE INDUSTRIES OF AUBURN PRISON

The women at Auburn weave toweling, make mattresses, finish blankets woven in the men's department, cane chairs, manufacture all clothing worn by inmates, (also the out-going dresses), and care for the prison garden. Last year the women wove 15,365 pairs of blankets and 7,994 yards of toweling. They also made 616 mattresses and more than a thousand pillows. The prison shop is well-ventilated and lighted. There the machines click-e-ty-clack and whirl and the garments grow to completion, and the toweling runs out from the spindles of the looms. The hand looms used are identical in structure with those of colonial days on which the Puritan maids wove their snowy linens.

The faces of the women working at the machines were not, except in a few instances,

hardened faces; they were faces such as you and I see every day in the crowded streets. Here and there was a woman whose features revealed the mental defective, but nearly all were of an intelligent type and many bore traces of refinement. A heavy-faced negress working at a loom had been in Auburn two terms previous to the present one, Mrs. Welshe told me. During these terms she had often been unruly and would hurl a chair through a window or commit any other breach of discipline without provocation or warning. "Now that she is here for the third time," said Mrs. Welshe, "I have made her understand that the discipline is not administered in a spirit of revenge, that the State is not 'getting back' at the criminal. Now that she understands, she has become a model of good behavior. An unruly woman loses caste here just as an unruly woman loses caste outside prison walls. After all, what is a criminal but a person who from some disability is unable to conform to law, the individual who fails to find proper expression in life and becomes an anti-social person—a criminal?"

Half the distance down the aisle of the prison shop, I noticed a very beautiful woman whose pure profile seemed the outward garment of a noble mind. "Surely," I said to Mrs. Welshe "that woman has been brought here by some mis-carriage of justice. It is possible that she is a criminal?"

Mrs. Welshe smiled a bit sadly and replied: "Everyone who comes here asks questions about her. She is the wife of a daring burglar now serving a term in the men's department, and has been here more than once for aiding and abetting him in his burglaries. In reality, she is the worst type of a woman-criminal, one who commits offenses through sheer weakness, a lack of moral stability. Here in prison she is quiet, well-behaved and industrious; given liberty, she drifts downward along the lines of least resistance. These weak-willed women should be 'lifers'—not those who commit sudden crimes of violence under the stress of great emotion."

In former years the men had charge of the prison garden at Auburn. A short time ago, Mrs. Welshe persuaded the warden to give over the care of the garden to the women. The result was not only more health, mental and physical, for the women, but also an increased output of vegetables. The amount or produce harvested from the small acreage under tillage is surprising—more than four thousand heads of cabbage and a thousand

bunches of asparagus—in all, eleven hundred bushels of vegetables and fruit. While looking at the healthy, tanned faces of the women weeding and hoeing the long drills of young vegetables, it was impossible to imagine that crime could flourish thereafter in their lives: it seemed that kindly nature would instill into their hearts the rejuvenation of her own tides of life and return them healed of all sorrow to the pathway of a bright future.

The cells at Auburn are really not cells; they are small, sunny rooms with high ceilings and windows that open out on a grass-grown court: they are airy and sanitary, with no trace of any odor unless it be the fresh, soapy odor of absolute cleanliness. The white, enameled iron beds are covered with white spreads and the pillows are concealed behind plain pillow-shams. Pictures adorn the walls, books rest on the stands beside the beds, and striped rag rugs on the floors add a note of color. "The women make these accessories for their rooms," Mrs. Welshe explained, "and their beneficial effect is revealed in the improved discipline. You cannot take away every evidence of refinement or of home life and expect a woman to respond to reformatory discipline."

The unsanitary tin dishes are banished forever from Auburn. The Women's Prison possesses a neat service of white china decorated with a green wreath and monogram. "The dishes are an indulgence of the warden," Mrs. Welshe explained, "but he does not regret his indulgence; the girls love the dishes and polish them until they shine every day."

From the prison shop we passed on to the hospital. It was exquisitely neat and fitted with all modern appliances. Mrs. Welshe lifted the mattress from one of the cots and explained that it was not a stuffed mattress, but a pad covered with soft blankets, the whole sufficiently pliable to be washed with regularity, thus ensuring perfect aseptic conditions for each incoming patient. The hospital bathroom had a large porcelain tub set squarely in the middle of the room to insure the lifting in and out of patients with perfect safety.

The women have a library of more than a thousand volumes, three hundred of bound magazines, a reading room, religious services on Sundays (Roman Catholic, Protestant and Jewish), and an excellent school. Four sessions of the school are held each day. At the session I attended seven negresses

and four white women were at work upon a composition in the form of a letter to their teacher, Mrs. Stone, the letter to tell how they had enjoyed the Christmas gifts and entertainment provided for them the day previous by the ladies of the W. C. T. U. of Auburn. I quote one of the letters which was written by a young negress serving her first term:

MRS. STONE, DEAR TEACHER:

I have not much to write about, for I did not go to the Christmas entertainment. I had to stay in my cell for misconduct. At first I cried and felt badly, but when I heard the singing from the chapel, I knelt down and asked God to forgive my sins and I promised Him and Mrs. Welshe that if I was here next Christmas, I would not be in my cell for misconduct on X'mas day. The dinner was fine; we had turkey and everything we had outside. I did not expect to get anything as I was bad, but they brought me the pretty calendar and the box of candy and the orange, for which I thank the kind ladies very much. I think more of these women than I ever thought of people on the outside before; they did something for *us not in return*.
L.

This simple letter brings out two things; first, the personal influence of Mrs. Welshe over her "girls" (they always make their promises to God and Mrs. Welshe), and, second, the little negress' discovery, for the first time in her life, there in prison, that all the amenities of life were not in the nature of a trade.

REFORMATORIES

These facts concerning two State prisons for women show what may be done in the way of reformation under ordinary discipline for the care of serious offenders. The class of penal institutions for women now receiving most attention from men and women who are working unselfishly for the public good, are the reformatories for older women and for first offenders between the ages of seventeen and thirty. There are but four of these in the United States, one in Indiana, one in Massachusetts, and two in New York. The women admitted to penal institutions in New York State reached the total number of 26,439 during the past year. Of these only 500 were placed in the reformatories, which shows that the State has not yet realized the ideal of the prophecy made by District Attorney Pelletier of Massachusetts—"that in ten years the State of Massachusetts will banish the word punishment from its statute books and endeavor to *reform all the women it convicts*."

The "cottage system" is used at Bedford,

Westchester County, New York. The inmates are classified in three grades as at other penal institutions, the first grade having the privilege of living in cottages, each cottage being complete in itself with its own officers. The girls do all the work of the institution, even painting and decorating the iron work of the buildings. Gymnastic classes are compulsory, and there are amusements of many kinds, musical and dramatic. The one building at Bedford unique in itself is the Morris Honor Cottage. The girls are elected to this cottage only after having lived three months in another first-grade cottage. These girls are self-governing and the rules are enforced by penalties.

In the Indiana Women's Prison conditions are even more cheering to the inmate than in those of New York and Massachusetts. The grotesque parti-colored prison garb is never seen there; the women wear different colors, made up in tasteful, simple style, protected by aprons and finished with a band or turn-over collar of white at the neck. Besides doing all the work of the prison they learn useful trades and are also allowed to do fancy work during their hours of recreation—drawn work, crocheted garments, embroidered trifles for their rooms—to keep their fingers out of mischief. They are compelled, as in all prisons, to bathe at least once a week, and their health is looked after by a resident nurse and physician. It is most desirable to have a resident woman physician in all women's prisons, for the attendance of outside male physicians has a demoralizing effect on certain classes of the inmates.

EVILS OF THE OLD RÉGIME

Over the doors of the old State prisons should have been inscribed the words—"Abandon hope all ye who enter here." Not hope alone but also self-respect and decency were abandoned by the unfortunate men and women incarcerated within their walls. Discipline was enforced by lash, by shower, by solitary confinement in dark cells, and other inhuman ingenuities. The individual became a number—a unit—in a line of shuffling prisoners who were condemned to live in dark, unventilated holes—by courtesy called cells. In nearly all prison buildings, the walls of these cells were damp and unwholesome, exuding a foul odor that told a story of years of unsanitation. The high, grated windows on the corridors were so arranged as to prevent any ray of health-

giving sunlight from reaching the interior of these cells; and no green, growing plant or tree could ever be seen to relieve in a measure the endless monotony of prison life.

On Christmas Day, in the year 1821, at Auburn Prison, eighty-three men were condemned to silence, idleness, and solitary confinement. In less than a year five of the eighty-three were dead, one had become an idiot, and the remainder were pitifully pleading for work. Not until four years later did the public come to a realization of its folly and cruelty and recommend in the State Assembly that prisoners should be kept at work for their own health and the public welfare. In these old-time dungeons there was no classification of the inmates, the unfortunate were associated with the depraved, the weak with the vicious. The discipline was a farce of justice; the personnel of the officials then, as now in many instances, the spoil of each successive political administration. Human beings emerged from these corrals of crime brutalized by a life within prison walls that pandered only to the lowest instincts within their natures.

Much has been done to remedy these intolerable conditions, but progress has been so slow that we still need more than one Galsworthy to point with accusing finger and ask, "What shall we do with our prisons?" The reformation of offenders is possible only when the entire gamut of individuality is freed to expression as a unified whole. Restrict the activities of a prisoner to a monotone—a dead level of feeling and expression—and the result is an abnormal condition that balks all efforts at reformation. The old prison régime was based on the erroneous assumption that penal discipline had to deal with an abstraction called crime, not with human beings, and thus reduced life to this dead level. It had the same effect upon the character that covering the pores of the skin with paint has upon the body. It killed aspiration and hope by restricting the normal activities of the human mind.

CAUSES THAT BRING WOMEN TO PRISON

The causes that bring women to prison are seldom of personal or even of direct moral significance. Women seldom use their wits to break the law, nor do most of their crimes demand a quick intelligence. They are in the main the result of a lack of training in trades, inconsidered marriages,

ignorance, youth, friendlessness, the general unguided condition of girls; non-employment, low wages, overcrowding in tenements, nervous tension, and the high-pressure life of the average female factory employee. These and other like causes produce the so-called artificial offenses, such as inebriety, unruliness, and minor breaches of the law which are mostly the result of overstrain. It has often been said that the barometer of crime rises as that of prosperity falls, and this is particularly true as regards the crimes of women. The thousands of women factory workers in every manufacturing city are never more than a few days from actual want. Given a period of overproduction or a depression in trade and the women's prisons fill with these despairing, idle workers. In New England, when the factories are running with a full force of operatives, there is a decided slump in the prison population, for all goes well with even these weaker spirits so long as they earn enough to eat every day and have a place to sleep every night.

Mary Boyle O'Reilly, Prison Commissioner of Massachusetts, said in a recent interview:

Women criminals are almost entirely the victims of the parasitic season-trades that by piece work and starvation wages drain the workers of life, liberty and happiness. The average wage of women is \$4.50, of girls, \$2.90, and twenty per cent. of the women workers in Massachusetts are always unemployed. Given idleness, hunger, anxiety, the illy concealed criticism of the neighbors and the unendurable tension of nerve and muscle, and it is not long until we find the woman who comes before the court for offenses against her womanhood. Woman in industry is the least valuable of human beings, yet the burden of the giant spiders of commercial industry falls upon them. Prolonged exertions, unsupported by adequate nourishment, alternated with spells of loafing, bring about a physical state that offers no reaction against the temptation to infirmity. The mere physical movements necessary in certain trades bring on a nervous excitability that paves the way to unchastity. The sorrowful sisterhood make up one-third of all women in prison, and the majority are very young.

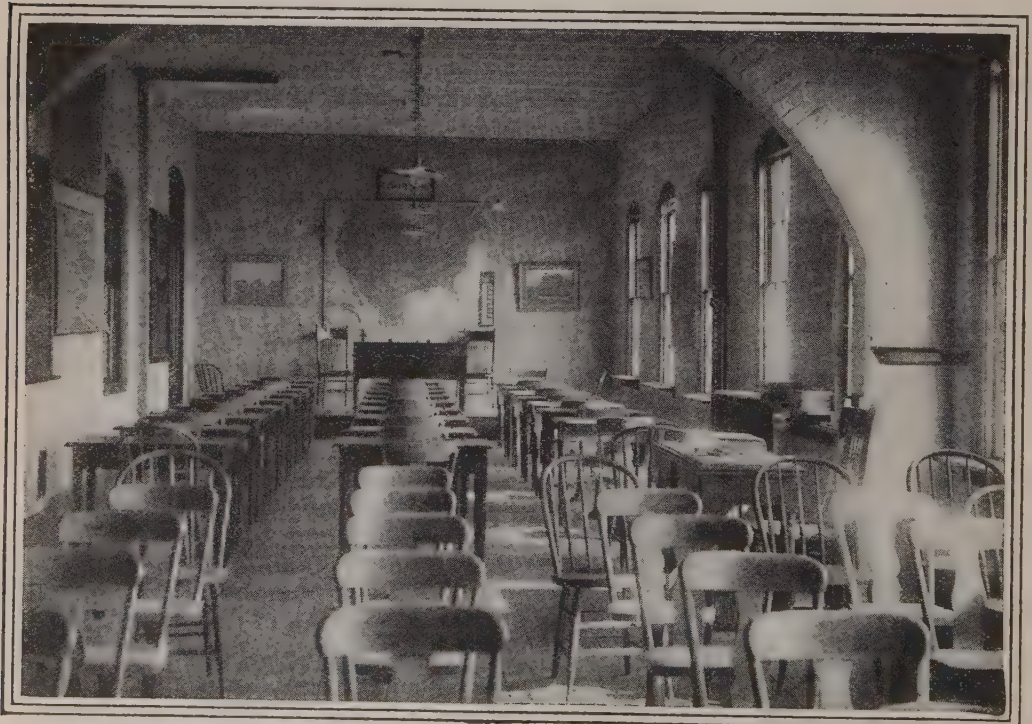
Miss O'Reilly makes the sweeping statement that all habitual women criminals are physically diseased, and that all women convicted are first in need of physical care to build up the tired body and correct the imperfect action of the heart caused by anæmia. Many women are simply problems for the nerve specialist, and others, either from prenatal influences or diseases such as meningitis, are moral idiots entirely irresponsible for their offenses.

After the initial processes in dealing with

offenders, the arrest, the trial, the sentence, comes the stage of incarceration where a cure of crime is possible. To do this successfully, the cause that brings the prisoner into custody must be considered in every case. Much is accomplished by medical treatment, healthful hygiene, wise discipline, education, and the constant example by the officials of self-control and right living. Clearly, swiftly, simply, habits are inculcated that lead to moral stability and economic independence. There is little use to teach the way of virtue to fallen women unless at the same time there is bestowed the ability or the skill for self-support after the period of imprisonment is over. The paraphrase of an old proverb fits their cases: "When poverty comes in at the door virtue flies out at the window." Moral education is what is most needed by these unfortunates. Many have no ethical knowledge whatsoever; they never had a chance to learn distinctions between good and evil in the crowded tenement and factory. "The mere vague impulse in a man to do his duty is barren without the knowledge which enables him to perceive what his duties are and how to perform them." A correctional system must be employed that will restrain all downward

tendencies and at the same time secure the coöperation of the prisoner in efforts for reformation. Their empty minds must take possession of ideas of virtue, kindness, charity, unselfishness, friendship and religion; they must become habituated to these ideas until they know what they *ought to will*. Prison discipline is founded on the Aristotelian idea of moral growth through enforced right habit. Every educational institution should be a shaper of character; and this is especially true of these moral hospitals we call our prisons.

But after all that is done for the women inside the prisons, perhaps the most important work remains to be done outside—the work of rehabilitation. It is hard for a man to "come back," and still harder for a woman. Let us reverse the impression that the world is hard on women and try to be of service to those who have felt the keen disgrace of a term of penal servitude. Unless one is sure of oneself, it is not best to undertake it, for the work requires great patience and exceeding charity. This particular service toward humanity is for those who believe with Matthew Arnold—"that one can scarcely overrate the importance of holding fast to happiness and hope."



THE SCHOOL ROOM OF THE SHERBORN REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN

THE JAPANESE NAVY SINCE THE WAR WITH RUSSIA

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE

AT the time when the Portsmouth Conference rose, the Japanese navy "took stock" and found under its flag: Nine battleships of the total tonnage of 119,876; nine armored cruisers of 81,709 tons; light cruisers and coast-defense ships, forty-six in number, of 126,120 tons; twenty-two destroyers of 7,554 tons; seventy-three torpedo boats of 6,544 tons — altogether, 159 ships with an aggregate tonnage of 372,712.

At the beginning of the Russian war the Japanese navy was composed of six battleships, of the total tonnage of 84,652; eight armored cruisers, of 73,983 tons; forty-four cruisers and coast-defense ships, of 111,470 tons; nineteen destroyers of 6,519 tons, and eighty torpedo boats of 7,119 tons.

The navy of Nippon came off from the blood-and-steel bargain counter of fortune with three battleships, one armored cruiser, two cruisers, and three destroyers more than it had before the war and only three torpedo boats less. In other words, it had increased the number of ships by two and the tonnage by 88,969.

This does not appear to be an extravagant price to pay for the results achieved: the security of the empire, the command of the Far Eastern seas, victory in perhaps the greatest naval battle ever fought, the training of the personnel and a great deal more. It doesn't look so on paper, no! Unfortunately, however, there sometimes happens to be a little discrepancy between the paper statement and the actuality.

As a matter of fact, the condition of the Japanese navy at the end of the war, save in the splendid condition of its officers and men, was bad. The Russian prizes were in such a state that the Government at Tokyo was not at all sure whether it would be cheaper to repair them or to build new ships outright. The flagship of Admiral Togo was asleep in the mud of Saseho. As for the guns and ammunition, they needed immediate attention.

The imperative and instant need for the rebuilding of the Nippon navy was not knocking at the door. It was literally bursting it

open, with all the insistent emphasis of a nation suddenly placed in the first rank of powers. Hence the appearance of

THE THIRD-PERIOD EXPANSION PROGRAM

This program has confused both the people of Japan and the foreign students, therefore a word in explanation. There are three appropriations made under this general heading; first, the original warship building and construction fund amounting to 99,860,000 yen,¹ and which as originally planned was to run for over the eleven-year period, from 1903 to 1913. The time, however, was extended, first to 1915, and then to 1917, because of the financial embarrassment of the Government after the war. This program was indeed inaugurated before the Russian war.

It was with this fund that the battleships *Katori* (15,950 tons) and *Kashima* (16,400 tons) and the armored cruiser *Ibuki* (14,620 tons) were built; and out of the same fund there is yet to be built one battleship of over 20,000 tons; one armored cruiser of about 18,000 tons, one cruiser, and two smaller ships.

As the ships of Japan were lost and damaged in the progress of the war, it was necessary to replace the loss. For this purpose the second fund, under the name of the "War-Ship Supplementing Fund," amounting to little over 123,000,000 yen, was approved. It was to run for ten years from 1907 to 1916. The battleships *Satsuma* (19,350 tons) and *Aki* (19,800 tons), the armored cruisers *Tsukuba* and *Ikoma* of 13,750 tons each, and *Kurama* (14,620 tons), and the cruiser *Tone* (4,100 tons), have been built with this fund. And out of it there remains to be built an armored cruiser of about 18,000 tons, two or three small cruisers and a number of destroyers.

There was set aside in addition to the above mentioned, the so-called "implementing" fund of 76,570,000 yen to be disbursed an-

¹ A Japanese yen is equal approximately to fifty cents in American money.

nually over a period of seven years, 1907-1913. With this fund, the super-Dreadnought battleships *Kawachi* and *Settsu*, of 20,800 tons each, are now being built, and out of the same fund one battle-cruiser of a large tonnage and three light cruisers and a number of destroyers are yet to be built.

Thus, the third-period naval expansion program has commanded much more funds than the original 99,000,000 yen, as the people usually take it for granted. The funds amounted in all to 299,430,000 yen instead of 99,860,000.

Even this thrice-padded amount has been found pitifully inadequate. An additional 82,000,000 yen, therefore, has been provided this year for the purpose of building a few more ships which are needed. The amount is to be disbursed annually in instalments for five years to come. A few newspapers and many politicians of Japan are laughing at the amount appropriated. It is too pitifully small to do any vital good, is their contention. The Government may be of similar mind, but it is a case of making the most of about a quarter of a loaf. It has been reported that the order placed with Vickers' Sons & Maxim for the construction of an armored cruiser of 27,000 tons and the laying down of its sister ship of the same tonnage at Yokosuka, have a direct bearing upon this additional appropriation of 82,000,000 yen. In this manner the total sum set aside for the third-period expansion program amounts to over 381,430,000 yen, or more than \$190,000,000.

THE TYPE OF SHIPS JAPAN IS BUILDING

In answer to a German criticism (of Count Ernest von Reventlow's, I think) on the Dreadnought naval policy in bringing about an enormous increase of the naval expenditures of the powers as "nothing short of a crime" Mr. Reginald McKenna, First Lord of the British Admiralty, pointed out the real criminal in this particular offense of building big fighting ships. It was not Great Britain, he said, that started it.

Japan laid down her battleship *Satsuma* (19,350 tons armed with four 12-inch and ten 10-inch guns) five months before the Dreadnought was begun. The First Lord was correct. And Japan's offense was forced upon her through no sweet experience. It began with the Battle of the Yellow Sea in the Chinese war. Our ships sunk or put to flight all the lighter ships of the Chinese. When they concentrated their fire on the

two Chinese 7,000-ton battleships, our own cruisers (for we had no battleships in those days) came very nearly saying their last *sayonara*, without making a vital impression on the Chinese armored ships. Later, in the Russian war, the Battle of the Nippon Sea emphasized the same lesson of the might of big guns and big armored ships. And since Japan is called upon to do a good deal with very small means, she lost no time in laying down the *Satsuma*. But in the year this ship was completed (1909), Great Britain saw six Dreadnought battleships and the cruiser the *Invincible* in commission! Instead of bringing forth fruit for repentance, however, Japan is forced—which serves her right—to keep up with the naval race of the powers in enlarging ships and armaments.

On the thirtieth day of March of this year, at Kure, was launched the *Settsu*—not the "last word," far from it, but the latest word in "capital ships." This naturally sums up in a concrete form the Japanese idea of a battleship construction to date. She is of 20,800 tons displacement, a sister ship of the *Kawachi* of the same tonnage. She is 533 feet long—a little longer than the *Kawachi*, which is 526 feet in length—beam 84 feet, draft 27, horse power 25,000. She carries twelve 12-inch guns of 50 caliber, ten 6-inch, eight 4.7 inch, and ten 3-inch guns. And here it may be noted, in passing, that, in spite of all sorts of mystic, free advertisements given to Japanese naval efficiency, the *Satsuma* and her sistership, *Aki*, and all other battleships in the Japanese navy, carry 45 caliber rifles instead of the later and much more effective type with which indeed so many of the American ships are armed. She is to have the speed of 20.5 knots, five torpedo tubes, and the complement of about one thousand officers and men. The ship has a curious historical interest for Americans, at least her name has. In the first year of the present Emperor's reign (in 1868), Japan bought a wooden frigate of 920 tons from the United States. She carried eight 30-pounders and she was christened *Settsu*. She was used as a transport and a training ship in the cradle days of the new Nippon navy. The star names of the naval history of Japan of to-day were once carried by very modest cadets who paced the deck of this wooden frigate.

SHIPS OF FOREIGN CONSTRUCTION

There is another element in the make-up of this super-Dreadnought battleship, which has a close connection with the United States;

she is to be driven by Curtis turbine. The *Settsu* is not the first battleship which has used a Curtis turbine. The *Aki*, the sister ship of the *Satsuma*, was the first. It was a decided innovation at the time. There were then other turbines that a Japanese warship might have used, Parsons' for example, which is used in British ships. At that time, also, there were no American warships using the American turbine engine—perhaps because of the old, old principle that a prophet, even among the engines, is not without honor save in its own country. At any rate the newspapers in Japan were loud over the innovation. It seemed such a compliment to the American inventive genius, and they said so. Their loud chorus sounded rather singular, for it was at the time when the yellows among the enterprising journals in the United States were in full cry over the bad, bad Japanese who were coming to take California away from the Union.

In the battle-cruisers, one can see the ideas of the Japanese navy in the 26,800-ton armored cruiser to be built at Vickers, Maxim & Company's yard and its sister ship laid down recently at the Yokosuka yard. In tonnage, these ships are larger than either the *Settsu* or the *Kawachi* by about 6,000 tons. This is inevitable. England tried to sacrifice solidity of ship construction to speed. The result was the *Indomitable* (17,250 tons), which is said to have been a rather expensive experiment. It is armed with eight 12-inch guns and has the wonderful speed of twenty-five knots. At the time of the trial the simultaneous discharge of her big guns brought out the fact that the ship was too lightly constructed to stand the strain of the heavy armament. Indeed, Lord Beresford is reported to have made some plain statements on this class of British battle-cruisers during the general election campaign some time back.

Of course there is only one way to build a ship strong enough to stand the strain of the heavy guns at play and at the same time have the speed of a fast cruiser—namely, to increase the tonnage. It is expensive. The ship ordered from Vickers will cost Japan about 25,000,000 yen (\$12,500,000), but this is precisely the type of fighting ships that Japan will need more pressingly than any other. For it is not from Asiatic waters that her prospective or possible enemy will come. She must look for such an enemy from European waters. And as at the time of the coming of the Baltic fleet, the most important element in the war scheme of our navy was to come in touch with the enemy as soon as

possible. A squadron of battleship cruisers which can take care of themselves against any ship afloat and at the same time have speed enough to dictate the time and place of battle to the hostile fleet which, of necessity, must be composed of battleships of slower speed, is invaluable to the Japanese navy.

THE NEW FAST CRUISERS

This brings us to another type of war vessels which plays no small part in the new navy of Japan. It is represented by the *Chikuma* and her sister ships. The *Chikuma* was launched at Saseho on the first of April of this year, and is a second-class cruiser of 4,991 tons. She is 475 feet long, with a beam of 46.6; a draft of 16 feet and 7 inches; a speed of 26 knots, and an indicated horse power of 22,500. The famous British *Dreadnought*, it is well known, has four propellers running at 300 revolutions which develop 23,000—power equal to only five hundred more than that of the Japanese cruiser. She has been fashioned to be as close a neighbor to the ideal scout as the Japanese navy knows how to make her. She is to be armed with eight 6-inch guns and four 12-pounders, two Maxims and two torpedo tubes. She is expected to play, in the sore hour of need, one of the far-flung fingers of the main squadrons, helping to make easier and more complete the work of the great battle cruisers now being built. All of this tendency in the ship policy of the Nippon navy points to one now rather apparent fact.

The China, the Yellow and the Japan Seas have been turned into the Far Eastern Mediterranean as far as the Japanese navy is concerned—especially since the formal annexation of Korea. The command of the Pacific waters, on the other hand, offers a realm rather free and wide even for fancy to roam in. Japan cannot have too many scout cruisers of the *Chikuma* type. This need is also the reason for the building of ocean-going destroyers represented by the *Umikaze* (Sea-wind) and the *Yamakaze* (Mountain-wind), both of 1,500 tons displacement, capable of developing 21,000 horse power with a speed of 33 knots. They are of the same class of destroyers as the British *Swift*. They tell a revolutionary story in naval construction.

THE STANDARD OF JAPANESE NAVAL EXPANSION

What really determines the size and strength of the Japanese navy is, of course, the size and power of the battle fleet which

the other powers of the world are able to put on the Far Eastern seas. China is at home in the Far East. Hers is the predominant interest there. Her navy, however, is still, and happily, a thing of the future. Setting her aside for the present, therefore, let us look at the new navy of Russia after the Battle of the Nippon Sea. It has come to be a pleasant vogue in some quarters to smile pleasantly whenever the Russian navy is mentioned in connection with the Far Eastern waters. The pleasantry is all wrong, as so many pleasant and fashionable ideas—more's the pity for us—are so apt to be. It might have been a surprise to some people; it certainly was a shock to most of our own good people in Japan when the following tables were published by the *Nichinichi* and other Tokyo papers in February of this year. They were compiled by the Japanese Navy Department.

THE SUPER-DREADNOUGHTS OF THE POWERS

Countries	Now Completed	To be Completed by End of 1911	Total Tonnage
England	12	29	595,000
Germany	5	17	315,000
United States . . .	4	10	223,000
France	0	8	160,000
Russia	2	6	125,000
Japan	1	5	110,000

OTHER TYPES OF BATTLESHIPS AND ARMORED CRUISERS

England	92	109	1,670,000
Germany	36	48	725,000
United States . . .	41	47	715,000
France	34	43	570,000
Russia	16	20	295,000
Japan	24	29	405,000

These figures do not seem to put Russia very much below Japan; and figures are such stubborn and inconvenient things to talk to death. We might, if we wish, kick them into the middle of next week, even to the end of the Fiftieth of Meiji, 1917, when the treaty with Britain will have expired. That wouldn't do a bit of good. Indeed, they get worse—the figures. Before the Russian war the learned critics used to tell us that neither Russia nor any other European power could ever send to the Far Eastern waters more than 50 per cent. of its ships. The coming of the Baltic squadron told us another tale. Even if Japan could give a fair account of the Russians, what of the other four powers each and every one of which has a large interest in Eastern Asia?

"According to my calculations," said Captain Oguri, an active officer of the Japanese navy, recently, "I believe that England, in 1917, on any morning things happen to happen will be in position to send half of her ships

at once—namely, 22 battleships and 15 armored cruisers—to the Orient. As for America, she stands independently in the Western Hemisphere, with no hostile countries among her neighbors. For her, there is no need of holding ships at home. On the day of trouble she is able to send her entire strength to the Eastern seas. Therefore, in 1917, she will be able to send 31 battleships and 3 armored cruisers, 34 ships in all, to the Orient. Germany will have no trouble in sending to the Orient 23 battleships and 18 armored cruisers, 41 ships in all, and France, 22 battleships and one armored cruiser, the total strength of 23 ships. And Nippon? In 1917, she will have 6 battleships and 7 armored cruisers to put into the main battle line; only 13 ships in all." That is to say, 24 armored ships less than England could despatch to the East, even if she were able to send but one-half of her naval strength; compared to America, 21 ships less; 28 ships less than the number Germany could send; and lacking 10 ships to match the French fleet!

Yet we hear so much of the wicked, wicked designs of those bloodthirsty Japs, so anxious to come over the six-thousand-mile face of the Pacific and eat up the Pacific States of America. After this somewhat lengthy statement, I suppose there is no man whose heart is so dead as to chide us for what little maidenly efforts we are putting forth in all desperation to keep up our national defense as best we may.

JAPAN'S ABILITY TO BUILD SHIPS

The Kure yard has built (completed in March, 1911) the 19,800-ton all-big-gun battleship *Aki*, and the Yokosuka yard its sister ship, the *Satsuma* (19,350 tons). On October 15, 1910, the Yokosuka yard launched the 20,800-ton super-Dreadnought battleship *Kawachi*; and on March 30, 1911, its sister ship *Settsu*, of the same tonnage, was launched from the Kure yard. And both the Yokosuka and the Kure are Japanese yards. These are simple statements of facts. How eloquent these statements are few but the naval men of Japan can know. Thirty-four years ago,—therefore, within the memory of men still in their prime to-day,—Yokosuka, then the only naval shipbuilding yard in the entire Empire of Nippon, launched the first warship (in the modern sense) built in Japan. It was the wooden ship *Amagi*, of nine hundred and ten tons. It's a far cry from this to the 20,000-ton Dreadnought *Kawachi*. With all that, the story of the development of warship-

BATTLESHIPS

	DISPLACEMENT	LENGTH	BEAM	DRAFT	PLACE BUILT	LAUNCHED	COMPLETED	HORSE POWER	SPEED	TORPEDO TUBES	GUNS
Settsu	20,800	533 feet	84 feet	27 feet	Kure	Mar. 1911		25,000	20.5	5	12 12-in.; 10 6-in.; 8 4.7-in.; 10 3-in.
Kawachi	20,800	526 feet	84 feet	27 feet	Yokosuka	Oct. 1910		25,000	20.5	5	12 12-in.; 10 6-in.; 8 4.7-in.; 10 3-in.
Aki	19,800	482 feet	83 1/2 feet	27 1/2 feet	Kure	Apr. 1907		18,425	20.3	5	12 12-in.; 12 10-in.; 10 6-in.; 8 4.7-in.
Sakuma	16,400	425 feet	83 1/2 feet	27 feet	Yokosuka	1905	1909	18,425	20.3	5	12 12-in.; 12 10-in.; 10 6-in.; 8 4.7-in.
Kashima	16,400	420 feet	83 1/2 feet	26 1/2 feet	Elswick	1905	1906	16,000	18.5	5	12 12-in.; 10 10-in.; 12 6-in.; 10 12-pr.; 8 3-pr.; 6 m. 21
Katori	15,362	420 feet	78 feet	27 feet	Barrow	1906	1906	16,000	18.5	5	12 12-in.; 10 10-in.; 12 6-in.; 10 12-pr.; 8 3-pr.; 4 2 1/2-pr.; 8 m.
Mikasa	14,765	400 feet	76 feet	27 feet	Clydebank	1900	1902	16,431	18.3	4	12 12-in.; 14 6-in.; 20 12-pr.; 8 3-pr.; 4 2 1/2-pr.; 8 m.
Asahi	13,516	397 feet	75 1/2 feet	27 1/2 feet	St. Petersburg	1890	1902	16,355	18.3	4	12 12-in.; 14 6-in.; 20 12-pr.; 8 3-pr.; 4 2 1/2-pr.; 8 m.
Shinkishima	13,516	397 feet	75 1/2 feet	26 1/2 feet	St. Petersburg	1900	1902	16,000	18	4	12 12-in.; 12 6-in.; 20 3-pr.; 6 1-pr.; 1-pr.
Iwami (Ore)	12,670	374 feet	72 1/2 feet	26 feet	Philadelphia	1898	1901	14,500	18	6	12 12-in.; 11 6-in.; 16 12-pr.; 10 3-pr.; 17 1-pr.
Sekiei (Tevizan)	12,674	401 1/2 feet	71 1/2 feet	26 feet	St. Petersburg	1900	1901	14,500	18	6	12 12-in.; 11 6-in.; 16 12-pr.; 10 3-pr.; 17 1-pr.
Suzuki (Gessvet)	12,674	374 feet	73 feet	26 1/2 feet	St. Petersburg	1896	1897	14,500	19.2	5	12 12-in.; 10 6-in.; 20 3-pr.; 4 4 1/2-pr.
Fuji	12,649	374 feet	73 feet	26 1/2 feet	St. Petersburg	1896	1897	14,500	16.2	6	12 12-in.; 12 6-in.; 34 smaller.
Tango (Poltava)	10,960	367 1/2 feet	69 feet	26 feet	St. Petersburg	1894	1898	11,255	16.2	6	12 12-in.; 12 6-in.; 34 smaller.

15 ships Total tonnage 233,250

ARMORED CRUISERS

	DISPLACEMENT	LENGTH	BEAM	DRAFT	PLACE BUILT	LAUNCHED	COMPLETED	HORSE POWER	SPEED	TORPEDO TUBES	GUNS
Kurama	14,620	450 1/2 feet	75 1/2 feet	26 1/2 feet	Yokosuka	Oct. 1907		27,000	22	5	4 12-in.; 8 8-in.; 12 4.7-in.; 3 1.8-in.; 21 4 m.
Tokuba	14,620	450 1/2 feet	75 1/2 feet	26 1/2 feet	Kure	Oct. 1907		20,500	21	5	4 12-in.; 8 8-in.; 12 4.7-in.; 2 1.8-in.; 21 4 m.
Ikoma	13,750	440 feet	75 feet	26 feet	Kure	1905	1907	20,500	21.1	3	4 12-in.; 12 6-in.; 12 4.7-in.; 2 1.8-in.; 21 4 m.
Asama	9,885	408 feet	67 feet	24 1/2 feet	Elswick	1896	1899	19,000	23	5	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Tokawa	9,885	408 feet	67 feet	24 1/2 feet	Elswick	1898	1899	19,000	21.7	5	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Izumo	9,826	400 feet	68 1/2 feet	24 1/2 feet	Elswick	1899	1901	17,300	20	4	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Iwate	9,876	400 feet	68 1/2 feet	24 1/2 feet	Elswick	1899	1901	17,300	20	4	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Yakumo	9,735	407 1/2 feet	64 1/2 feet	23 1/2 feet	Shedden	1899	1901	16,000	20	5	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Azuma	9,436	431 1/2 feet	59 1/2 feet	22 feet	St. Nazaire	1899	1901	17,000	22	6	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Aso (Bayan)	7,726	443 feet	55 1/2 feet	22 feet	La Seyne	1900	1902	17,400	22	4	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Kasuga	7,700	344 feet	59 1/2 feet	24 1/2 feet	Sestri	1902	1904	13,500	20	4	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.
Nishin	7,700	344 feet	59 1/2 feet	24 1/2 feet	Sestri	1903	1904	13,500	20	4	4 8-in.; 14 6-in.; 12 12-pr.; 8 2 1/2-pr.

13 ships Total tonnage 138,459

CRUISING SHIPS

COAST-DEFENSE SHIPS, GUNBOATS AND SCOUTS

	TONNAGE	LAUNCHED	COMPLETED	SPEED	TONNAGE	LAUNCHED	GUNS
Chikuma	4,950	Apr. 1911	1910	26	Ikta (Nicola I.)	1889	2 12-in.; 4 9-in.; 8 6-in.; 12 R. F.; 8 M.
Tone	4,100	Oct. 1907	1902	23	Mushima (Semiavine)	1884	4 6-in.; 4 6-in.; 6 1.8-in.; 8 M.
Tsugumaru (Pallada)	6,630	1889	1900	23	Okoshima (Apraxine)	1885	3 10-in.; 6 0-in.; 1.8-in.; 8 1.4-in.
Soya (Varyag)	6,500	1889	1900	23.7	Matse	1885	2 17-C. M. (Krupp); 5 12-C. M.; 2 M.
Chitose	5,505	1890	1898	22.7	Katsuragi	1885	2 17-C. M. (Krupp); 5 12-C. M.; 2 M.
Yakumo	4,272	1891	1893	17	Musashi	1885	2 17-C. M. (Krupp); 5 12-C. M.; 2 M.
Isukushima	4,272	1891	1893	17	Uji	1885	2 17-C. M. (Krupp); 5 12-C. M.; 2 M.
Nassakake	3,709	1885	1885	18.7	Fushimi	1903	4 12-pr.; 3 M.
Tatehiko	3,709	1885	1885	18.7	Sumida	1906	
Nitaka	3,450	1902	1905	20	Anegawa	1903	
Tsushima	3,000	1903	1904	21	Manshu	1898	
Otowa	2,967	1878	1878	17.4	Suzuya	1901	
Izumi	2,800	1897	1897	20	Mogami	1908	
Akashi	2,700	1896	1896	20	Obitaya	1900	
Suna	3,172	1892	1893	19	Yodo	1907	
Akatsushima	2,436	1889	1890	17.5	Tatsuda	1894	
Chiyoda	2,436	1889	1890	17.5			
18 ships Total tonnage	72,594						

Two torpedo mother ships of 14,620 tons; 57 destroyers of 21,594 total tonnage; 99 torpedo boats of the aggregate tonnage of 4,046.

Captured from Russia. Former Russian names in parentheses.

building in Nippon is a tragedy, both financial and human. Shipbuilding in any country rests largely on three things—the condition of yards and machinery, the ability of the naval architects and their workmen, and the material for construction. In none of the three does Japan stand among the leaders of the world. When the battleship *Satsuma* (19,350 tons) was built, entirely by Japanese hands and brains and with Japanese material, the country went into a fit of almost frenzied enthusiasm. It shows how young Nippon is in this particular branch of work.

Following the examples of great powers such as England and America, it is Nippon's policy to bring about her complete independence in naval construction—eventually to build all the warships in the native yards. Still, at present, it is not altogether possible, or best, or cheapest to do so. The order for the 27,000-ton armored cruiser placed in England last year shows that Japan is still quite willing to learn. It speaks well for her good sense that, in the midst of all the loud international compliments heaped on the Japanese navy, she is not blind either to her own shortcomings or to the superiority of others. In January of this year, there were six ships building in different Japanese yards of the total tonnage of 38,000 as follows:

Yards	Name	Tonnage
Kure.....	<i>Settsu</i>	20,800
Maizuru.....	<i>Umikaze</i>	1,150
Saseho.....	<i>Chikuma</i>	5,000
Mitsubishi (private yard)...	<i>Yahagi</i>	5,000
Mitsubishi " " ..	<i>Yamakaze</i>	1,150
Kawasaki " " ..	<i>Hirado</i>	5,000

In addition to the above, a sister ship to the 27,000-ton cruiser ordered from Vickers' Sons & Maxim will be laid down at the Yokosuka yard during 1911. Also the work on the two destroyers of 600 tons each at Maizuru; a river gunboat of about 260 tons at Saseho, and a battleship of the *Aki* class will be begun in a short time. There will be about 50,000 tons of new construction, therefore, at the end of this year.

As the new ships were added to the navy, Japan found it necessary to strike off twelve ships from the effective list in 1910—the third coast-defense ship *Kongo* (2,284 tons, launched 1877), the torpedo boats Nos.

6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20 (from 53 to 54 tons each), and the destroyer *Inazuma* which was damaged by collision. And on April 1, 1911, the following vessels were also taken off the list: *Chin-en* (coast-defense ship, 7,335 tons; launched 1882; captured from China); *Hiyei* (coast-defense ship; 2,284 tons; launched 1877; whose heroic record at the Battle of the Yellow Sea is remembered); *Takao* (coast-defense ship, 1,778 tons; launched 1888); *Akagi* (gunboat, 622 tons; launched 1888; fought the Chinese battleship at the Battle of the Yellow Sea single-handed); *Yaeyama* (scout cruiser, 1,609 tons; launched 1888).

From the above list, it will be readily seen that ships have a rather long lease of life in the Japanese navy.

The following table shows the growth of the Japanese navy after the war with Russia:

At the End of the Year	Number of Ships	Total Tonnage
1905.....	184	417,311
1906.....	198	458,960
1907.....	208	511,701
1908.....	194	505,490
1909.....	193	503,207
1910.....	184	524,273

The tables on the foregoing page show the ships of the Japanese navy which had been completed or launched before May 1, 1911.

Besides the craft enumerated in the tables, Japan has nine submarines of the total tonnage of 2,826, the largest of them displacing 314 tons. Four more vessels of this type are either proposed or in course of construction.

To sum up: it is the kindly wont of Japan's foreign critics to speak of the development of the Nippon navy as more dramatic and sensational than a fireside tale. It is. Still it must be confessed that her present sea strength is far from being adequate for the safety of her expanding empire. To dash one's head against a stone wall of any kind is neither profitable nor comfortable. For Nippon to pound her head against that of her financial limitations has the added bitterness of being foolish. Still she does it. She is doing it every year. This shows how bitterly she feels her galling needs. And not even all the flattering talk of Captain Hobson and his entertaining school of Japanophobes consoles her troubled soul very much.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

SOME FACTS FOR DOUBTERS AS TO THE EFFICACY OF ARBITRATION

THOUGH many converts to arbitration have been made as the result of the memorable meeting at the Guildhall, London, and of speeches by President Taft, by the British Prime Minister, and by others, doubts still exist in the minds of many on the subject. These doubts have reference to the range of arbitration as a practical mode of settling difficulties, and as to its standing the strain likely to be put upon it when really difficult questions arise; to obtaining arbitrators in whom there would be complete trust; to the possibility of framing rules to meet all cases; and to uncertainty as to what would happen if there were no rules for the guidance of arbitrators. In the *Contemporary Review* (London), Sir John Macdonell, C. B., presents some facts which, though they may not remove these doubts, may, he hopes, prove helpful. They are, he says, facts which anyone may verify. We may enumerate them briefly as follows:

Remarkable improvement in arbitration and its unmistakably increased efficiency.—In the earlier arbitrations “the arbitrators were avowedly advocates, and not very temperate advocates; bound to find for their country; probably acceptable in so far as not impartial.” Sir John says further:

The casting vote was determined by lot; the litigant who chanced to get it must win. Instead of going through the form of arguing, the parties might as well have spun a coin into the air and gone home when it fell. . . . I may safely say that no advocate of repute in that country [the United States] or elsewhere would in these days commit himself to a doctrine asserted by the American representatives in regard to the Oregon boundary, that a state whose subject had discovered the mouth of a great river was entitled to the entire territory which it drained. . . . There is but one opinion—shared no less by the representatives of the United States than by those of Great Britain—as to the admirable manner in which the last great international arbitration, that relating to the North American fisheries, was conducted under the presidency of Professor Lammasch.

The existing treaties of arbitration are prepared with greater care, and the precise questions to be determined are more clearly defined than in the past.—Lord Westbury said of the

Washington treaty: “I think three boys of ten years old might have succeeded in making a more intelligible one.” Says Sir John Macdonell:

Scarcely was the ink dry when the representatives of the two parties were hopelessly at variance as to the limits of the subject-matter of the dispute and the meaning of the rules which the tribunal was to apply. By way of contrast, I may refer to the seven questions submitted to the arbitrators in the North American fisheries dispute; the issues for the tribunal were sharply defined.

There is a great improvement in the preparation of the “cases” submitted by governments to the tribunals.—The trial is preceded by long and careful investigations; a well-recognized form of procedure has been evolved. In the last century sovereigns were frequently nominated as umpires. Though “they had the merit of being impartial . . . their decisions did not advance or expand international law.”

There is ground for believing that the popularity of arbitration is not a passing phase.—On this point Sir John’s observations are especially worthy of attention. He writes:

It is not an accident that arbitration has in these days become more and more common. It was not an accident that permanent embassies became common in the sixteenth century; that treaties of commerce began to increase in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; that the laws of neutrality were evolved chiefly in modern times. These things came about from pressing necessities; and the frequent employment of arbitration in private and international disputes is in like manner part of a living process. With the increasing number of points of contact between nations are multiplied the questions which must be somehow solved—if not by diplomacy, then by arbitration. There is a deeper cause for its prevalence: there is not only the growth of the pacific spirit, but the disbelief in war as a lasting settlement and a sense of its futility and brutality. What is of even greater moment, though less noticed, is the diminution, for a time at all events, of the causes of deep animosity and ill-feeling between nations. They have their conflicting ambitions; they are keen competitors at many points. But (with one or two exceptions) there do not exist between states those feelings permitting of no compromise which existed while Austria ruled over Italy, while the Christian states formed, or being formed, out of the Turkish Empire had a precarious existence, and while the unsatisfied aspirations of nationalities took the form of demands of one state upon another.

Sir John refers to "the great stumbling-block in the way of acceptance of arbitration in the comprehensive terms which President Taft originally proposed or in the modified form of the draft treaty." It is said that vital questions affecting the honor of a nation cannot be referred to arbitration. Yet it is noteworthy how many questions in which it was said national honor was involved have in fact been satisfactorily settled by arbitration or by like means. Sir John gives the following instances:

The opposition to the arbitrations conducted under the Jay treaty came from those who thought that the matters at issue affected the honor of the two countries. In the long dispute as to the Oregon boundary there was the same talk of honor. President Polk declared that "he did not believe the territorial rights of a nation to be a subject for arbitration." "All Oregon or none." "Fifty-four

forty, or fight," was the popular cry. In the end the forty-ninth parallel was accepted with no loss of honor and dignity. The sticklers for the honor of this country [England] pressed Lord Salisbury to meet President Cleveland's demand—for such it was—that England should submit to arbitration the dispute between her and Venezuela as to the boundary of British Guinea. Lord Salisbury, who understood honor as well as any statesman, did not yield to this pressure. The matter was referred to arbitration and resulted in a decision, on the whole, in favor of England. A famous American statesman once declared that he would as soon cut off his right hand as agree to the contention of England with respect to the North American fisheries; a contention which his country lately submitted to the Hague Tribunal with no loss of prestige or honor.

As a matter of fact, all the most successful of the great arbitrations of the past have turned upon questions of vital interests and national honor.

WILL CANADA BE LOST?—A CANADIAN VIEW

IN few of the current discussions of Reciprocity has the subject been handled with more directness or in terms more uncompromisingly frank than in the article entitled "Will Canada be Lost?" which is contributed by Mr. Albert R. Carman, of Montreal, to the *National Review* (London). This writer goes straight to the point; he calls a spade a spade; and he thrusts his lance with absolute impartiality. For instance, we read:

Let us begin by dissolving the problem into its elements and discovering its chief factors. First, I should put down without any hesitation the intentions of the American people. Do they mean Annexation? This ought not to be a difficult question for a people of the same stock—the people of the United Kingdom—to answer. What would the British people mean if they were in the same position as the Americans, and had a rich, undeveloped, sparsely populated and yet highly civilized country dividing the North American continent with them? What is the use of playing the hypocrite? Men of our blood are born Annexationists. The British people have been "annexing" everything loose for centuries, and although they are suffering from "land dyspepsia" to-day, the habit is so strong that they inadvertently lay an itching palm from time to time on such inconsiderable trifles as the Soudan, Thibet, a choice bit of Persia, another section of the Dark Continent. We do not want these countries. Oh, dear, no. We will not take them. We merely cast our shoe over them, and we would like to see any European rival lay a covetous finger on the fringe of their outer garment—that is all.

Now the Americans are made of the same stuff. They have been "annexing" territory ever since they began business a century ago at a fairly creditable rate of speed for a young people. That arch-Annexionist—John Bull—has every reason to be

proud of his Prodigal Son who has made the profession of Prodigal pay. They began with Thirteen States strung along the Atlantic seaboard. That was in 1776. Look at a map and see how little of the present American Republic that original string of Commonwealths comprised. Then they "annexed" the Hinterland—an empire in itself. Then they purchased Louisiana from Napoleon. They had now so much empty land that they could not find time to "map" it; but they pushed into Texas and "annexed" another principality. They "held up" Mexico and took California *et al.* Finally, after the Civil War, they "annexed" Alaska for no mortal reason except to get a firmer grip on the northern half of the continent.

Mr. Carman asserts that he does not intend his remarks as a criticism of the American people. But, he adds, "they are human. They are still 'annexing' territory—Hawaii, the Philippines, Porto Rico, Panama—all for the good of the countries they 'annex.' They *know* that they are the greatest people with the finest government and the best institutions and the highest ideals in the world. Why should they not desire to extend these benefits to others? When Britain stops 'benefiting' India, and benevolently building barrages for the Egyptians, she will be in a better position to carp." Mr. Carman calls this "the argument from human nature." He considers the argument from the utterances of American leaders more specific, if not so convincing. President Taft, of course, now knows that "a whisper of Annexation from his lips would kill the scheme upon which he has risked his political life." But he has publicly called attention to the fact that "the

bond uniting the Dominion to the mother country is light and almost imperceptible," not understanding that "to point to the lightness of the bond is tantamount to confessing that he thinks that bond easy to break." "Now," says Mr. Carman, "if we grant the intention of the American people, where do the Canadians stand?"

Will it be easy to keep Canada—or for Canada to protect herself—if the Americans are determined to get her? . . . There is no question of fighting about it. Britain and the United States dare not fight to-day for ten Canadas. . . . By all means let us adopt the Arbitration Treaty as a notice to the world that the two Anglo-Saxon peoples are getting back to back. But the very fact that there will be no fighting increases the danger for Canada. There are a lot of Canadian people who would fight—if fighting were at all in question. . . . The point I want to make is that if a hundred million people in the United States set themselves to get control of ten million people in Canada and to secure unlimited access to their natural resources, we have a situation that is not to be toyed with.

At present the United States is pressing Canada at two points—her splendid water powers along the international boundary and her pulp forests. As Mr. Carman puts it, the Americans "want benevolently to develop them both for us." The Taft-Fielding Agreement, if it goes into effect, will kill off a number of industries. It will also strip the Canadian farmer of every vestige of protection. Another effect will be to create a very considerable north-and-south trade. That is the purpose of the agreement. Thousands of Canadians will adapt themselves to the new conditions and will be commercially concerned in its continuance. To threaten Reciprocity will be to threaten their pockets. "Free trade in hogs and livestock will convert Canada into a subject province of the American meat trusts." American capital will flow in to exploit Canadian natural resources; and mighty financial interests will stand to lose hundreds of millions from any rupture in the friendly fiscal relations of the two countries. Quoting Mr. Carman again:

That will be our position when some future American President proposes "free trade in everything." We shall at once say that we cannot grant it. . . . But Mr. Taft's successor may say—and with truth—"I am sorry. I understand your position. I sympathize with it. I know we assented to the Taft-Fielding Agreement. But if you do not show some disposition to meet the demands of our people, they will send a Congress to Washington one of these days whom I cannot restrain, and who will be instructed to tear up that Agreement. So I fear you had better ward off that danger by granting 'Free trade in everything.' Of course I give you my word that this will not mean



BRITANNIA'S NEW SON-IN-LAW

OLD ENGLAND: "He is a fine old gentleman, but one always hates to give up her best beloved daughter to a foreigner."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

Annexation". . . . What do you think will happen then? The farmers are likely to be for it; and they are to-day 65 per cent. of our people. All the interests which have established relations with the American market will favor it. . . . A man who cannot see Annexation in to-day's scheme will not see it then. So will go our industrial independence. Commercially we shall be a tier of States in the American Union.

Mr. Carman closes his forceful paper with these words:

Will Canada be lost? Can Canada leave the Empire and keep her identity? Can the Empire spare Canada and keep her prestige? These are all critical questions. They are by far the gravest which the peoples concerned have faced in a century. But it is pure petulance to call President Taft "the enemy of the British Empire." He is nothing more than the friend of the United States; and, as a patriot, he could be no less. But we are here dealing with mighty world forces—with the progress of nations—for which no man is to blame. Let us not lose our tempers. But let us have the courage to see things clearly. Let us soberly realize that President Taft is right when he says that "Canada is at the parting of the ways." The Canadians are making a decision to-day which may vitally affect the balance of the powers when generations yet unborn take up their destiny. We are fighting one of the decisive battles of history. Quite as much depends on how it goes as was at stake at Sadowa—more in my opinion than was at stake at Waterloo.

Few students of history will be disposed to doubt the accuracy of Mr. Carman's forecast.

AUSTRIA VERSUS ITALY—AN AUSTRIAN VIEW

EVERY student of international politics—indeed every intelligent newspaper reader—knows that there is a good deal of hostility between Austrians and Italians, and this despite official protestations of friendship and alliance. A writer in the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna) sketches recent relations between Austria and Italy and lays the blame for the existing strained situation almost exclusively upon the Italians, whose unfriendly feelings, according to the writer, are insistently evident. He criticizes his own countrymen and Government, too, for displaying too concessive a spirit toward the Italians, to the detriment of their own dignity and interests. He says:

Were one to judge by the official protestations of friendship on both sides and the frequent reciprocal friendly visits of leading statesmen, it might be thought that harmony reigns supreme; and many in Austria are naïve enough to take that view. One who looks at the reverse of the shield, however, will find a striking difference—no trace of the alluring glitter of the other side. This is, of course, familiar to diplomats and their underlings, and hence their nervous anxiety to conceal it; but the increasing gusts from Italy expose it ever anew to the world's gaze. Even should a person be ingenuous enough to credit the assurances of those officials, the policy of the respective Ministers of War would belie them, both being zealously engaged in powerful martial reinforcements. Persistent optimists may say that that is no conclusive evidence, since other nations, too, are feverishly arming—which is true. But the military preparations in Italy and Austria leave no room for doubt as to whom they are aimed against. The extension of the Venetian railway, the erection of a second naval base on the Adriatic, the fortifying of the eastern frontier, and so on, all these are signs which must convince even the rosiest optimist. If to this be added the ever recurring rancorous demonstrations against Austria, the sensational success of D'Annunzio's premiere of "La Nave," the matter-of-course way in which a war with Austria-Hungary in the near future is openly discussed in Italy, we have such crushing evidence of the existing tension between the two nations, that to attempt to deny it would seem absolutely childish. In face of these significant facts the "hearty" alliance of the two monarchies romanced about by the diplomats appears in an entirely different light.

But who is to blame for this unsatisfactory and dangerous situation? Italy would unhesitatingly cry in unison: Austria. But no such unanimity prevails in the latter monarchy in imputing the blame to Italy.

In the latest legislative session protests were raised against Austria's "defiant" warlike preparations. These proceeded, it is true, mostly from Socialists, who neglect no opportunity to asperse

their own country, but in liberal circles and their press, too, we find more or less direct allusions to the "reactionaries" and "fire-brands" who would destroy the cordial relations between the two nations; the tension, according to them, being produced by the opposing views of clerical Austria and Liberal Italy. As a matter of fact, this has little or nothing to do with the matter; for it is immaterial whether the aspiration for Trieste and Southern Tyrol proceeds from clericals or liberals. The real causes of the existing antagonisms are far more deep-seated.

The first question is: what reasons has Austria (Hungary may in this question be ignored) to antagonize Italy?

The answer is very plain—none. It can rebound only to her benefit to cultivate cordial relations with her southwestern neighbor and to have a real, not a mere paper, alliance with her. How lacking the existing one is was bitterly experienced by Austria in the annexation crisis in the Balkans, when Italy's attitude, instead of inspiring confidence, made it impossible for the former to concentrate her efforts in that region and forced her to have her fleet in readiness for all emergencies in the Adriatic. Had Italy at that critical juncture proved as faithful an ally as Germany, Austria's position would have been entirely different. Austria-Hungary's chief economic interests lie in the southeast. It is, therefore, essential that she should feel secure in her rear, which is only possible if she is sure of Italy's friendship. This consideration alone makes the Italians' assertion that Austria threatens their country, seem a phantom of the fervid southern fancy or a malicious fabrication.

The Austrian reinforcements on the Italian frontier were, the writer shows, resorted to only upon Italy's increasingly threatening attitude. He also points out that the Italian forces far outnumber the Austrian in the frontier regions. It were high time, he adds, that the Italians should recognize that the Austrians want nothing from them and are not thinking of attacking them. "No less timely would it be for them to comprehend that it is *their* (the Italian) attitude that prevents a genuine alliance, and forces Austria-Hungary to be on its guard and to take preventive measures." The article proceeds to point out that the policy of the House of Savoy has never been friendly to Austria. "Its object has always been the destruction of Austrian dominion."

Though with the fall of Venice the original program of Savoy and politics—which was that of the Italian nation as well—was consummated, the last vestige of Austrian rule on Italian soil destroyed, the national ambition was not satisfied. It wanted to free the "unredeemed" sons of Italy, and organized the party of the "Irredenta Italia"

which made that its object. How great the influence of that party is, was shown at the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, when there was a stormy outcry to force Austria to give up its possessions peopled by Italians. Though the Italian Government did not yield to the popular pressure, it evidenced its sympathy with the aims of the "Irredenta" the same year by having its chief, General Arizzani, buried at the public expense. And though it has maintained a correct attitude, not countenancing any of the inimical demonstrations, it has not remained inactive; it is steadily arming—against what presumptive foe it would, in the face of obvious facts, be absurd to doubt.

From the foregoing facts, which can all be proved, the writer continues, the conclusion that "if the relations of the two nations are not what they should be the blame attaches to Italy alone, is irresistibly convincing." It is for her alone to change the course she has hitherto pursued and to convince her neighbor that she is, not only on paper but

in reality, her ally. But might not a partial satisfaction of the Italian claims, the writer goes on, secure a sincere and permanent alliance and put a stop to rival reinforcements?

The cession of Trentino, say. Some follower of the Baroness von Suttner might well ask such a question. The answer is furnished by Pellegrini in his book: "Verso la Guerra." He says that if there could be an Italian administration that would agree to it, it would be swept away by a revolution, for Trentino will naturally fall to Italy at the next political change, while she must have Trieste and Istria besides, upon a host of grounds—and this view is presumably shared by all non-official Italy; at any rate, by its youth. That it is impossible for Austria to yield to these wishes goes without saying. Even in the camp of the peace-advocates this may be recognized. If, however, the fulfillment of those aims is insisted upon as an indispensable condition of genuinely friendly relations, a resort to war is forced upon the Austrian monarchy. She does not want it, but neither does she fear it.

EXCHANGES OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

IT will be a matter for regret if the suggestions contained in Mr. J. B. E. Jonas' article on "Intra-national Exchange of Teachers" in the *Educational Review* do not bear fruit. Few persons will be disposed to challenge his assertion that "We Americans, for all our travel, mostly European, and for all our vaunted open-mindedness, are extremely provincial. We know surprisingly little about our country, and do not manifest any insuperable desire to learn more . . . we can travel in our own country, if we choose to. There is no reason why we should not know our own cities, our own art galleries, our own libraries and our own mountains and lakes just as well as we do those of Europe. But the fact is we do not. We do little culture travel in our own country on railroads, less by automobile, and none on foot. The European has a great advantage over us in this respect."

How shall these conditions be remedied? If the pupils will not travel, and the students will not migrate, the teachers must. Now, as Mr. Jonas remarks, we cannot all begin to traverse the length and breadth of the land any more than we could all start suddenly for Europe; but we can help to make it possible for some of us to do so, and those should be chosen who can do so most easily and those who can afterward most fully disseminate

their impressions. A short sight-seeing tour is insufficient: residence with a full opportunity to get steeped in the new environment is necessary.

As to a central bureau to direct and superintend this exchange of teachers and professors, Mr. Jonas points to the Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Sage Foundations, which "very well could, and certainly gladly would, undertake this work."

Would the teachers take kindly to the idea? Would they respond and accept exchange positions remote from home? In this connection Mr. Jonas writes:

The most emphatic answer to this question is the fact that when the Prussian exchange opportunity was offered, far more American teachers responded than did schools . . . and an equally emphatic answer is the fact that as many as thirty thousand teachers annually attend the National Education Association meeting, and invariably regret, on the day of their departure, that they must leave. . . . These teachers want to see Boston and New England, or Milwaukee, Denver or San Francisco, and their environs, about which they have been hearing and reading so much. And yet, who can acquaint himself with these in the short time they have at their disposal, and during the summer, when much that is best in them can not be seen or observed at all? Give a teacher in Wisconsin, or Arizona, or Georgia, an opportunity to spend a whole year in Boston, New York, or Philadelphia, as exchange teacher without loss of time or salary—why the thought of it would make

her heart leap to her throat for rapture! . . . Besides, more than that of any other profession, teachers' work is nerve-racking. Nothing more salubrious for the overworked teacher could be imagined than an occasional opportunity for travel and change of environment, which this contemplated teachers' exchange would afford. No, there is no doubt that the teachers would show a ready response.

There is another point that should not be lost sight of. The profession of teaching is the one most easy to get into ruts. Constantly dealing with minds inferior to his own, mental dwarfing and stagnation are his most insidious dangers. To these, "travel and a new environment are the most effective

antidotes; and it is precisely these that the exchange would afford. A devitalised and languishing teacher would return quickened and animated, and could put to use at once this new knowledge and enlarged scope of vision."

Mr. Jonas observes, further, that the influence of parents and of the home is admittedly declining very rapidly, and consequently, the school and the teacher will be more and more called upon. If therefore increased service is expected, enlarged opportunity should be granted. Give the teacher every chance to widen his horizon, and to fit himself for his difficult task.

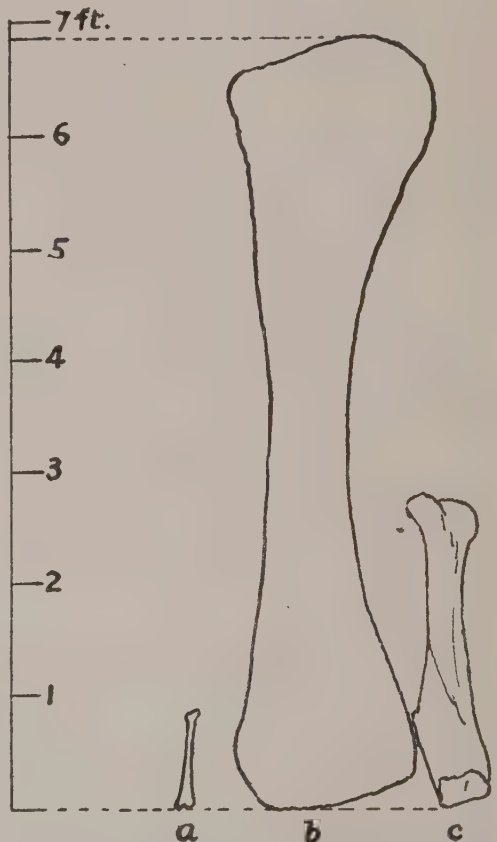
NEW CRETACEOUS REPTILES FROM GERMAN EAST AFRICA

UP to within recent years, America has been famous among paleontologists as the land of the big reptiles of the secondary age, for nowhere else were found so great a variety of colossal extinct reptiles as in the "Bad Lands" of Wyoming, the Dakotas, and adjacent States. It seems, however, that with the continued exploration of Africa, America is to lose her primacy in this respect. The fossils of the Karoo beds of south Africa, with their close resemblance to American fauna of the same age, have already been known for some years. Now comes Professor Branca in a recent number of the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* with a description of a mountain of immense fossil bones recently discovered by a German paleontologist led by Eberhard Fraas in the Tendaguru district of German East Africa. Besides this find, others in the Kilwa district of the same colony have been made, about eighteen different localities in all.

Professor Branca compares one of the immense new fossils with the mounted skeleton of the diplodocus which Carnegie presented to the Imperial Museum, and very much to the disadvantage of the latter. The diplodocus has heretofore been known as about the largest of all land animals so far discovered, but the new giant appears to be at least one-third larger, and possibly twice as large, to judge by the bone measurements cited by Professor Branca. The new skeleton, along with others, is now in the process of unpacking and reconstruction in Berlin, which will doubtless require many months.

The longest rib of the diplodocus has a length of 73 inches, while one of the ribs (not

known to be the longest) from the African reptile measures about 98 inches. The long-



COMPARATIVE DIMENSIONS OF HUMERUS OR UPPER ARM BONE OF (a) MAN, (b) THE NEW CRETACEOUS REPTILE FROM THE TENDAGURU DISTRICT OF GERMAN EAST AFRICA, (c) ELEPHANT

est neck vertebra of diplodocus has a length of 25 inches; one of those from Africa (perhaps not the longest), 47 inches, nearly twice as great. The humerus (upper arm bone) of diplodocus is 37 inches long, and two of the upper arm

correct, practically all of the big skeletons in the fossil hall of the American Museum of Natural History must be taken down and remounted, and when this is done will present a very different appearance from what they now do. It is a serious indictment against the ability and knowledge of American paleontologists, since they are the ones who were originally responsible for the setting which is contended to be radically wrong.

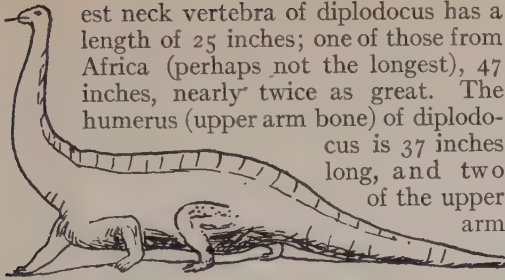
Briefly, the contention is that these big reptiles are mounted with straight upright legs, just like mammals, whereas the upper joint of the limbs of all living reptiles extends horizontally at right angles to the body, and that the forms of the joints of the fossils show this to have been so with the extinct reptiles also.

This would make their height very much less than at present, and explain some facts which have hitherto failed of explanation.

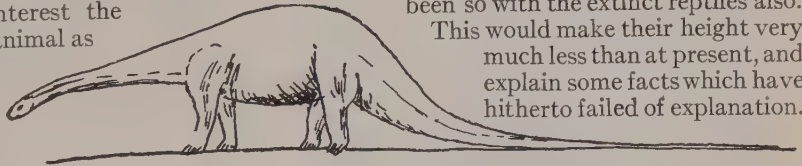
bones from Africa have each a length of over 82 inches, more than twice as great as that of the diplodocus. The figure on the preceding page shows this humerus in the center, that of man on the left, and that of the elephant on the right. The scientific world will await with interest the appearance of the animal as set up. The head of the animal, says Professor Branca, has not yet been unpacked, but is conjectured to be very small in respect to the size of the body, like most of the herbivorous dinosaurs.

Professor Branca renews the controversy which was started by Professor Tarnier and has for some time raged in Germany over the proper mounting of these great reptile skeletons. If Professor Tarnier's contention is

The long necks were not carried horizontally forward from the body, but curved over the back like those of swans or herons, and these necks, in conjunction with the heavy tails, were used for reaching the upper foliage of trees, in which position they raised their front legs from the ground in the manner of a kangaroo.



DIPLODOCUS AS RECONSTRUCTED BY GERMAN PALEONTOLOGISTS



DIPLODOCUS ACCORDING TO AMERICAN PALEONTOLOGISTS

MUSIC AND CHAUVINISM

SOME pregnant words directed against a growing tendency to glorify the national, in the art of music, thus devitalizing it, and preventing its real mission as a world force, are spoken by Dr. J. de Jong in *Onze Eeuw*, one of the leading reviews of Holland.

There is just now in Europe and also in America, he reminds us, a tendency to laud "native" as against that of "foreign" music, although this tendency differs in both strength and object in the different countries.

In America it is peculiarly directed against everything European, in France against everything German or Italian, in Holland more against German music than against French. France offers a typical situation.

French composers have strongly protested against the presentation of foreign music in the state subsidized houses. Xanir Leroux, the composer of "Le Chemineau," was the leader of the protest, and was supported by Saint-Saëns,

Erlanger, and others of note. The protest was especially directed against Albert Carré, the Director of the Opéra Comique, who was, they said, far too fond of drawing upon his Italian repertoire. The number of operas of various foreign composers reproduced seems to favor the conclusion of the oratorio composers, but it must be noted that the productions so favored were primarily classical, and that the favoritism, as shown numerically, did not so much apply to modern productions. Pierre Lalo, the well-known *Temps* critic, brought a new and higher concept into the dispute. He said the French malcontents have a right to be angry with Carré, but not so much for his leaning toward the foreign, as because of his preference for inferior foreign music, even against good native work. Lalo asserted that whereas Puccini figured 377 times in one year's representations, Beethoven, Mozart, and Gluck together only account for 233. This he considers monstrous. That so petty a composer should be represented more than those of the greatest names in international music together, is a real justification for saying Carré is no critic. His point is, that it is not in the interests of art to laud the national simply because it is national, but that it is essen-

tial to discriminate in the selection of the foreign. Carré's retort is that Puccini pays better than Indy, Debussy, or the others, which tends to show that the public sentiment is not pronounced in support of the chauvinistic preference, but it is fostered as a species of "protection" by native authors. The result of the protest has been that Carré has consented to a minimum number of representations of French works and a maximum number of foreign, well knowing, however, that it will be impossible to carry his pledge into practice. Further, the protest created bad blood in other countries, in Italy more especially. There was talk of reprisals in the form of making Italian "copyright" more difficult for French works, in Italy where they are commonly used and presented. Moreover, to the door of his French critics Carré may possibly lay the honor of being asked to accept the musical direction of the Turin Exhibition.

Passing to the conditions in Holland they of course vary, for in that country, says the author, there is practically no national musical dramatic art.

For a long time, however, there has been an

outcry against Dutch singers of repute, because they never or rarely included national songs in their programs. In a country so much visited by, and so much dependent upon, foreign artists, who cannot be blamed, for they rarely know Dutch, this desire for the dramatic may be more leniently regarded. More and more where choice of a program is given, does it go to the Dutch song or the song by Dutch composers. As an illustration of the growth of the tendency in Holland, Bernard Zweers is quoted as having written in "Neeandia": "The soul of the people is being undermined, by the aid of a great proportion of the people themselves. Is there a clearer sign of the lack of public spirit and of national sensibility than the fact that those of our foremost singers have recently given recitals in German, without it enlisting any protest?"

Zweers fails to see that this demonstrates that, left to themselves, the people do not share his chauvinism. It is not to the nationality of the composer that one should look, but to the merit of the production. It is laughable to speak of purifying ourselves from the foreign, in our times of enlightenment and hyper-civilization, of internationalism and cosmopolitanism.

GILBERT, AUTHOR OF "PINAFORE"

AN entire generation of theater and opera goers has enjoyed the clean and captivating operas or operettas, which were the joint product of Sir Arthur Sullivan and Sir William Gilbert, two men who worked together with rare harmony of purpose and method. On May 29 Gilbert died at his country home in England. He was in his seventy-fifth year. He lost his life while attempting to save a lady visitor from drowning in a swimming pool. It was by an impressive coincidence that his death occurred on the very day that "Pinafore" was revived, with an all-star cast, at one of the New York theaters.

The first of the Gilbert and Sullivan operas was staged thirty years ago, but the loss of Sir William Gilbert belongs essentially to the present. Referring to the extent of his influence, the London *Spectator* remarks:

The operas which he wrote with Sullivan have most of them stood the test of years, and have been successfully revived over and over again in London and by touring companies in the provinces [and abroad]. His libretti are as familiar to the drawing-room as to the theater, and as the author of the "Bab Ballads" he has taken a definite place of his own in the literature of the country.

Gilbert's place, continues the *Spectator*, is secure, even when we accord to Sullivan all the credit due him for the melodies of the work they did in common.

There is always a certain danger of the work of a librettist being bound up or confused with the

music of his collaborator, and Gilbert before now has received praise which he himself would doubtless have considered unbalanced, as, for instance, when he has been compared as a writer of lyrics with Shelley, or when he has been assured that no writer of patter-songs has been his equal since Aristophanes. Something of the lilt and melody of Sullivan's music has infected that kind of criticism. But fortunately Gilbert has left other writings behind him besides those which Sullivan set to music. His work seems to separate itself into three periods. You get, first, the period of the "Bab Ballads"—an era of periodical publication which found him an audience of his own. Few stories are more familiar to budding authors and beginners in journalism than the rejection of the "Bab Ballads" by *Punch*, and their triumphant progress in *Fun*. After the "Bab Ballads"—of course, the periods are never wholly distinct or separate—comes a time of serious playwriting, when the Gilbertian genius for topsy-turvydom on the stage seems to develop an almost permanent point of view. To these years of playwriting belong "The Palace of Truth," "Pygmalion and Galatea," "The Wicked World," "Sweethearts," "Engaged," and others; some, like "The Wicked World," dealing satirically with topics of the day, while others are still popular favorites. And then begins the third period, dating from 1877, when Gilbert, with Sullivan, produced "Trial by Jury," and followed it with "The Sorcerer" and "H. M. S. Pinafore." With the world-wide success of "Pinafore," which, we may reflect with amazement, was by no means assured at first, the Gilbert-and-Sullivan era had established itself. For Gilbert it was at once a beginning and a return. In the plays there had already been a promise of the quality of the books of the opera; in "Engaged," indeed, there is a sentence which might stand almost as the keynote of all Gilbert's writing; the delightful reply to a proposal of marriage—"I love you with a love unparalleled in the annals of the

heart, but—business is business.” That might be taken from any of the operas; but it belongs equally to his earliest work.

An estimate of Gilbert's work, which is representative of the general American comment, appears in the *Nation*, New York. From this estimate we quote the following:

He was not a great dramatist, but he possessed many of the essential qualifications of one. No man had a quicker sense of theatrical situation either comic or serious. He had the constructive faculty, plenty of imagination and invention, experience of life and knowledge of human nature, both kindly and caustic wit, quick and humorous perception, and a mastery of language which manifested itself in sound and pregnant prose and fluent, musical verse. There are in his writings many pretty strokes of poetic fancy and bits of genuine pathos and passion, while some of his lightest productions are freighted with a pointed moral and philosophic observation. . . . And although in one form or another he dealt with life in many phases, and often in robust fashion, he never condescended to pander to low tastes by the use of vulgar or demoralizing methods. There is not an objectionable line to be found in all his publications. Beginning to write at a time when the British stage was largely abandoned to crude sensation or the veiled improprieties of adaptations from the French, he set himself to prove that audiences could be attracted without any sacrifice of decency, and that it was possible even to handle pitch without defilement. When he entered into his partnership with Sullivan—to quote his own words—“we resolved that our plots, however ridiculous, should be coherent, that our dialogue should be void of offense, that, on artistic principles, no man should play a woman's part, and no woman a man's. Finally, we agreed that no lady of the company should be required to wear a dress that she could not wear with absolute propriety at a private fancy ball.” To this agreement they faithfully adhered, with results that are known to the whole civilized world. What becomes of our modern “musical comedy” when judged by this standard? Of course, Gilbert, who was the more potent spirit in the illustrious firm, did not win the public and fortune by the mere exclusion of vulgarity and nudity from his stage. He furnished better and



SIR WILLIAM GILBERT READING A PLAY TO TWO OF HIS ASSOCIATES

more certain attractions instead of them. He took care also that every performer in his company should be able not only to sing, but to act. . . . Neither Sullivans nor Gilberts, unfortunately, are to be found every day. But the lesson which they taught is plain enough for such of their successors as choose to profit by it. Empty, vulgar, glittering frivolity may draw the crowd for a brief season, but only the entertainment that appeals to intelligence and good taste is sure of lasting public support. Gilbert and Sullivan died full of riches and honor.

THREE THOUSAND MILLION BANANAS A YEAR

THE commercial history of the banana is a veritable fairy tale. Just as the growth of the plant is phenomenally rapid, so the trade in its fruit exhibits a development almost incredible. Forty years ago comparatively few persons in the United States had ever seen a bunch of bananas: the fruit was practically unknown. In 1910 there were imported into this country more than three thousand million bananas—a shipment which would cover an area 20 feet wide reaching

from New York to San Francisco, or, placed end to end, would extend thirteen times around the earth at the Equator. The wholesale value of this importation at the point of export exceeded \$12,500,000; and the banana-loving public of the United States probably expended more than \$35,000,000 for its favorite fruit. The first known importation of bananas into this country took place in 1804, when a consignment of thirty bunches was brought to New York as a commercial

venture by the schooner *Reynard* from Cuba; but the real beginning of the trade may be said to date from 1856, when Mr. Charles Frank undertook regular importations from Colon to New York. Then in 1870 Captain Baker, owner of a Cape Cod schooner, which had carried machinery and gold-miners 300 miles up the Orinoco, ran into Jamaica for ballast, carrying a few bunches of bananas on deck as an experiment. The experiment proved so successful that the banana industry was established on the island, and in 1910 the exports of the fruit reached \$4,000,000.

According to Mr. Franklin Adams, editor of the *Bulletin* of the Pan-American Union, from whose interesting article in that magazine the foregoing data are taken, the banana is one of the thirstiest of plants, and will not produce a maximum of fruit in districts where there is an annual rainfall of less than 100 inches. Consequently, although it can be grown through fifty degrees of latitude from 25 degrees N. to 25 degrees S., only a small fraction of the area between those par-

allels is so located that banana growing can be made profitable. The banana being seedless, propagation is by means of young shoots or suckers. The method of cultivation is as follows:

The suckers are placed, in rows about 12 feet apart, in land that has been cleared of small timber and brush. When the planting is finished, the only labor necessary is to keep down the weeds and to carefully clean the ground about the root of each stalk. The development from a newly planted sucker to the plant in full bearing is simply short of marvelous. Within a space of six or seven weeks the 2- or 3-foot plant has more than doubled in size, and a month later the leaves cease to unfold, and a spike appears out of the center of the crown. This is the future stalk of the bunch and carries a huge red blossom at the end. It develops rapidly, continually bending more and more until in a short time it has turned completely upon itself so that the bananas grow end up, or in a position the reverse of which they are usually hung. From 7 to 12 months after the blossom appears, the fruit is ready for the gatherer. At irregular intervals along the entire stalk, and extending only part of the way round at any one place, the bracts break forth tiny ridges of flowers—which are almost immediately replaced by 9 to 12 embryo bananas.



CUTTING BANANAS IN COSTA RICA

(In cutting the fruit plant, long lances are used—palm poles with broad steel blades. The stalk of the tall plant is half severed at a point about eight feet above the ground. The weight of the fruit causes the top of the plant to bend slowly to the earth, where the bunch is cut from the stem by a stroke of the machete)



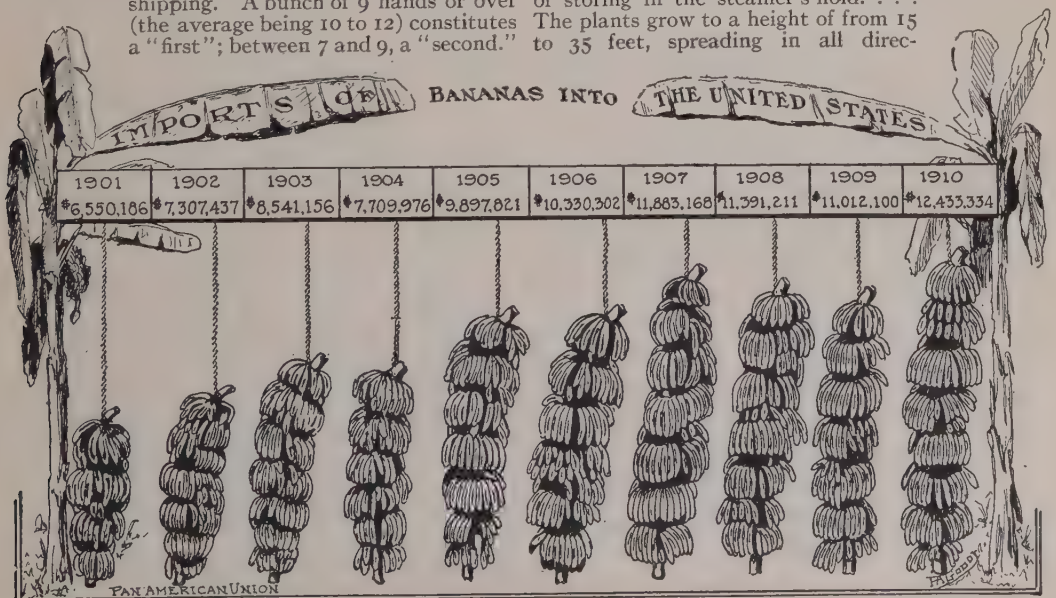
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LOADING BANANAS IN PANAMA

(Bananas are placed in canoes at Gatun, on the Chagres River, in the Canal Zone, for shipment)

These are the future "hands" of the bunch, so called on account of their resemblance to those members when held in a certain position. It is by means of these hands that the fruit is classified for shipping. A bunch of 9 hands or over (the average being 10 to 12) constitutes a "first"; between 7 and 9, a "second."

Anything under this minimum is discarded by an inspector at the wharf. Bunches of 17 hands are exceptional, and those of this abnormal size are not usually shipped, owing to the inconvenience of storing in the steamer's hold. . . . The plants grow to a height of from 15 to 35 feet, spreading in all direc-



tions. . . . The banana plantation yields a continuous harvest for years without replanting. Some that are fifty years old are yielding today as prolifically as in their third or fourth year.

In 1899 banana trading was organized on modern commercial lines, and since then more than 125 vessels, specially built for the trade, have been plying between New York and the tropical fruit belt. Bananas grown for the market are usually planted along the borders of navigable waters; and in large-producing countries, as Costa Rica, extensive railway systems to facilitate the shipping of the fruit have been built. The fruit is cut by means of long lances with broad steel blades, and the stalk of the plant is half severed at a point about 8 feet from the ground. The weight of the fruit causes the top of the plant to bend slowly to the earth, where the bunch

is cut from the stem by a stroke of the machete. The loaded train is rushed to the port, where the steamer is waiting for the cargo. - Steam conveyors reach from the open hatchway to the doors of the fruit cars, permitting a cargo of 20,000 bunches to be loaded and stowed in less than ten hours. The importance of the banana traffic to the railways will be realized when it is stated that last year there were distributed throughout the United States and Canada over 60,000 cars, each containing 500 bunches. A perfect system of ventilation is maintained on the "banana specials," which are warmed in winter and cooled in summer, so that the ripening of the fruit in transit may be assisted or retarded as may be desired.

The greatest producer of bananas is Costa Rica, which sends forth to the world annually over \$4,500,000 worth of the fruit.

RUSSIA, CHINA, AND THE COUNTRY OF GENGHIS KHAN

THE prominence lately given in the press to the exchange of diplomatic notes between China and Russia in regard to the Treaty of St. Petersburg of 1881 focussed for a time the entire attention of the world upon that remote and obscure region, Ili. From a semi-official Chinese source, the REVIEW has received the following brief survey of the history of Russia and China in the country of Genghis Khan:

Forming the extreme northwestern corner of the Chinese Empire, Ili has been, since its domination by China nearly twenty centuries ago, the scene of continual strife as the result of one inroad after another that was made into it by religious sects and marauding bands from the neighboring country, which at times threatened to undermine the Chinese rule. Zealous Buddhist missionaries, Nestorian Christians and Mohammedans had in turn found a foothold in this priest-ridden region. The 7th century saw the country overrun by the Tibetans, and no sooner had it been rid of them than the Mongolian nomads from the north made it the object of their plunder. Then here were enacted many of the bloody exploits of Genghis Khan, who subjugated the country in the 11th century. Islam, however, had by this time firmly established itself and its continued ascendancy had the effect of unifying the heterogeneous population and gave it two centuries of tolerable peace. But with the arrival of the mollahs from Bokhara in the 14th century, Islam became the mainspring of factional strife, throwing the country into continual turmoil until the latter part of the 18th century, when with its neighbors, Kashgaria and Sungaria, it once more succumbed to the power of

the Chinese. The period of respite following its reconquest by China, during which it assimilated more of its conqueror's civilization than in all preceding centuries, came to an end at about the time of the American Civil War, when the Dungani, allied for the time being with the Tarantchis, rose in revolt against the Chinese authorities and annihilated their garrisons, only to be themselves vanquished later by the Tarantchis in a sanguinary struggle. The spirit of sedition, fomented across Bokhara, now infected the whole Tarim valley; the entire Moslem population were up in arms against the Chinese rule, the strength of which had practically been paralyzed. An open rebellion under the leadership of Yakub Bey broke out, who, by a series of ruthless massacres, possessed himself of all Kashgaria. Yet China was compelled to remain an impotent spectator of her frontier territories gradually slipping from her grasp, as she was at this time menaced at home by an even more formidable rebellion—the Taiping Rebellion—to cope with which she was draining all resources at her command.

At this critical juncture Russia stepped in and occupied Ili valley in 1871. Peking received her prompt assurance that it was in the interest of order at her borders that she took this step, and that as soon as China was able to reassert her authority in that region she would be ready to restore it. The account goes on to say:

The unexpected, however, happened. In a few years China rose triumphant over the Taipings and was then free to turn her attention toward the frontier. An army under Marquis Tso Tsung

Tang was forthwith ordered to Turkestan. Tso confined his operations mainly to reducing the principal Mohammedan strongholds on both sides of the Tien-Shan range; Urumtsi, Turfan, Yarkland and Kashgar successively fell. This brilliant campaign, lasting three years, was brought to a close with the complete reestablishment of China's sway over that region.

Time now had come for Russia to fulfill her solemn promise to evacuate Ili. Diplomatic negotiations were immediately opened with this end in view. Tsung Hou was sent to Russia as Treaty Commissioner. After protracted discussions, a treaty was signed at Livadia in 1878, by which Russia agreed to reduce her original claim for indemnity in return for the cession of a portion of Ili and other political and commercial privileges. The disclosure of these terms raised a storm of indignation in China and its government staunchly refused to ratify the treaty. Emboldened by the recent successes of her arms, she even contemplated resorting to forceful measures to regain the territory in question. Preparations were accordingly made for a military demonstration along the frontier. This unexpected show of strength was promptly met by a resolve on Russia's part to make a naval demonstration in the Pacific, and a squadron under Admiral Lessovski was assigned to this task. This expedition, however, was later abandoned by Russia, owing to what appeared to be a change of policy on her part. Recourse to diplomacy was once more had. The then Chinese Minister to the court of St. James, Marquis Tseng, was designated to proceed to St. Petersburg to negotiate a new treaty. An agreement was soon concluded with the Czar's negotiators, by which practically the whole of the contested district was restored to China, with the exception of a narrow strip on the western edge, which was ceded to Russia as "a retreat for those of its inhabitants who preferred to remain under the Russian rule." An indemnity of nine million roubles was provided for as reimbursement for military expenses incurred by Russia in holding Ili on behalf of China and in satisfaction of all claims of the Russian merchants for losses sustained. Important concessions in the form of overland trade routes and special commercial privileges were granted. Here, too, were incorporated those various clauses the interpretation of which gave rise to the recent diplomatic parley between the two countries.

The Russian side of the case is given in a recent issue of the *Russkaya Mysl* (Moscow) in this way:

Among other things agreed upon in this treaty [that of 1881] there is the right for Russians to carry on dutiless trade in certain Chinese provinces along the slopes of Tien-Shan mountains, with the proviso that this right is to be abrogated when the development of the trade will necessitate a tariff, in regard to which both countries are then to agree. The treaty also granted to Russians living in China the privilege of being subject to the jurisdiction of Russian officials only, while cases involving both Russians and Chinese were to be tried by a tribunal composed of representatives of both nations. In the meanwhile, under the influence of the awakened chauvinism in China, the privileges and rights exacted for Russians in the above treaty were infringed upon. Interpreting



THE PRESENT OBJECT OF STUDY FOR CHINESE ASTRONOMERS

Watching the movement of the Great Bear—Russia—
across the Celestial Empire
From Kalem (Constantinople)

the above mentioned proviso from the standpoint of mutual agreements, China denied to Russia the right of establishing, within Russian limits on the border, of certain tariff obligations without her consent, while the article in the treaty states very definitely that this restriction about the tariff is applicable to China only. Further, the privilege of free trade was restricted by China, by the establishment of monopolies, which has especially impaired the Russian tea trade. In the case of jurisdiction the Chinese tried to prevent as far as possible the trial of natives in tribunals containing Russian judges. The Chinese government also attempted very obstinately to prevent the establishment of Russian consulates at some trade centers where Russia had considerable commercial interests. All of these proceedings indicated that China wished to secure a more profitable position before the renewal of the treaty than she had occupied previously. The Russian ministry, being aware of these intentions, decided that these profitable points should not be yielded to China, to which effect it sent an ultimatum to the latter country's government which was in the form of definite demands and was accompanied by a threat. This produced some confusion in the Chinese government, and its reply was not as categorical as the Russian note, but it again strongly asserted China's rights. At this point the Russian ministry committed a grievous blunder by accepting China's conditions without a single change, and by further expressing its complete submission to the general public. "We showed China a mailed fist, and hastened to hide it in the pocket as soon as we saw that China was in earnest; such is at any rate the public impression."

THE ARID AND DESERT LAND OF LOWER CALIFORNIA

ONE of the least-known parts of North America is the long, narrow peninsula that projects about 800 miles southeasterly from the southern border of California. And yet it has a recorded history which goes back almost four centuries, early chronicles relating that it was discovered by an expedition sent out by Cortes in search of a fabulously rich island said to have been inhabited by Amazons. It is mainly a mountainous desert region, thinly peopled, and presenting sharply contrasting conditions. "Vast desolate plateaus of ragged black lava embosomed like valleys, where verdure-bordered

streams and the spreading fronds of date palms recall the mysterious hidden vales of the 'Arabian Nights.'" Through this land of drought and desert Mr. E. W. Nelson of the United States Department of Agriculture traveled 2000 miles on horseback, traversing the most extraordinary cactus forests in the world. He contributes an account of his journey, together with some exceptionally fine illustrations, to the *National Geographic Magazine*, from which we cull the following interesting paragraphs:

The periods of drought, during which practically no rainfall occurs, extend from three to five years. . . . During these periods the smaller desert herbage crumbles and is blown away, leaving the ground between the larger woody and fleshy plants as bare as though swept. With the heavy rains which follow, the bare earth is covered, as if by magic, with an abundance of small flowering herbage, and the larger plants burst forth into flower and foliage.

The isolation of the desert lowlands, combined with the alternations of long-continued drought and heavy rains, has resulted in the development of the most extraordinary desert flora in the world. The cirio is peculiar to this region, and is one of the most abundant of them all.

It has a tall, tapering trunk twenty to fifty feet high, with pale yellowish bark, many extremely thorny branchlets along its entire length, and tufts of small yellowish flowers on the end of long, slender stalks at the extreme tips. Thin forests of these polelike trees cover hundreds of miles of the interior.

Cactuses of many kinds abound, varying from giants standing with massive trunks fifty to sixty feet tall to little straggling-stemmed species too weak to hold themselves upright. . . . One morning I rode out from a dense growth of bushes into an open area and pulled up my horse in amaze-



MAP OF LOWER CALIFORNIA



From the *National Geographic Magazine*. Copyright, 1911

DESERT SCENE IN LOWER CALIFORNIA,—THE OLD MISSION TRAIL OF THE INTERIOR

ment at sight of the most extraordinary of them all. Before me was a great bed of the creeping devil cactus, which appeared like a swarm of gigantic caterpillars creeping in all directions.

Another curious plant encountered by Mr. Nelson was the water-storing *Ibervillea*. This has so much liquid stored that it can go on sending out vines, flowering, and fruiting years in succession without a drop of rain.

Among the curious fauna the traveler found

many small animals that were able to do without water. We read:

The plains of Lower California abound with small desert animals such as rabbits, pocket mice, kangaroo rats, and others. . . . A large number of these never drink water. They live and thrive on dry seeds and scraps of vegetation without ever touching their lips to water, and it has even been found impossible to teach some of them to take water in captivity. Apparently they never know thirst or the delight of quenching it.

Among the birds of the peninsula are the giant condor measuring nearly eleven feet across its outspread wings. Mr. Nelson also found many cormorants breeding, whose nests were raided by ravenous gulls.

Whenever a cormorant, alarmed by our approach, flew away, the gulls swooped down on the exposed eggs and ate them at once. On two occasions I saw gulls alight on nests and calmly pick up young cormorants weighing five or six ounces each and swallow them entire, the helpless victims being swallowed head foremost, their feet waving despairingly from the gull's widely spread beaks as they disappeared.

The efforts made during the past fifty years to establish agricultural colonies in Lower California have uniformly resulted in failure, owing to the scarcity of water. But centuries ago the Jesuit missionaries proved that in the valleys wheat and other crops might be grown. The storage of surface water and the development of the underground supply should render considerable areas productive on the plains of San Quentin and Magdalena. At present corn, cotton, tobacco, besides bananas, figs, oranges and other fruits are grown.

ESCALATOR VERSUS ELEVATOR

IN the time-honored fable of the hare and the tortoise it was what might appropriately be called the "continuous performance" of the tortoise that won the race. Similar results are to be seen to-day in the industrial world. Continuous production is the characteristic of the times. As a matter of fact, continuity in production is modifying our modern civilization to a much greater extent than people generally think. For example, the continuous output of the rolling-mill has made possible the production of railway rails and the steel frames of our modern skyscrapers at a price which would be out of the question were they produced by intermittent forging. The automatic lathe is another instance of the tendency

toward continuous production. To these illustrations Mr. J. F. Springer, writing in the current issue of *Cassier's*, adds the striking comparison of the express with the accommodation train. He says:

Railway men perceive pretty clearly the enormous loss incurred in frequent stops of the passenger train. There is the time lost while the train is actually quiescent. To this must be added the time lost in slowing down and getting under way. . . . But the interruption of the motion of the train is, perhaps, not so important as the interruption in the continuity of the train itself. If there were no intervals between trains there would be an enormous increase of the capacity of transportation. So great would this increase be that the continuous train could be run fairly slow and yet be able to carry the traffic. The individual might require a longer time on the train, but there would be a rapid movement of the whole mass. No one would have to wait for a train; there would be no stops; there would be no slow-downs; no gradual starts. Such a train, if possible, would solve New York's rush problem—the problem of getting a very great mass of people to their destinations in a short period.

It is just this problem that calls for solution in many situations, as, for example, where a large number of persons are discharged in a short period of time at some great railway terminal, and the track level may be considerably below the street.

The problem here is not so much that of getting a few individuals up to the street in a very short interval as it is that of getting them all thither in a reasonably short period. Elevators are inadequate to the solution. The happy passengers who succeed in getting on board are quickly brought up—the rest must wait. Many will have to wait an unreasonable time. The only solution is by some *continuous* method. A very wide stairway or inclined plane would afford facilities. But the modern passenger is not inclined to look with favor on making a long climb, especially if he is encumbered with hand luggage. He does not



AN ESCALATOR PARTLY CONSTRUCTED

want to supply the power to complete his journey. A continuous mechanical means of transportation is the only solution which can be expected to meet all requirements.

Take the further case of the department store with its thousands of customers scattered over its various floors. As most shoppers can testify, the elevators, however numerous, frequently fail to relieve the congestion, on the lower floors particularly. To quote Mr. Springer further:

The distribution is governed by the capability of the elevators to make the various floors accessible to large numbers of people. The problem in the department store is entirely different from that in an office building. In the office building it is only a moderate number of people who desire to reach the various floors within moderate intervals of time. The elevator has solved this problem, and solves it very successfully.

But the elevator has not succeeded in doing for the department store what it has done for the tall office building. In the latter all that is necessary is the fairly rapid circulation of a moderate stream of people. In the department store a great stream has to be handled. This distinction should be noted well. What it needs in order to give its various floors an accessibility that has some approach to equality is a *continuous* means of vertical transportation.

One method, and a very successful one, of securing the desired results is by means of the moving stairway or escalator. This contrivance is already well known to visitors to our great emporiums; but to others, unfamiliar with it, the following brief description may be of interest:

In general appearance, this is a staircase, and may be used as such. Upon closer inspection, however, the steps will be seen to be moving onward and upward. A person who uses the stairway in the ordinary manner will be, accordingly, carried up and on in addition to the movement due to his own exertions. He thus gets up the steps at quite a rapid rate—much as if he went up running two steps at a time. But if he is not in such a hurry the escalator will itself do the entire service. He has only to stand upon the tread of one of the steps to be carried along. Now if one notices a little more closely, he will see that even an instantaneous view would show some divergence from the customary staircase. The first few steps at the bottom have less than the standard height. And a like remark applies to the final steps at the top. However, at all times



THE ESCALATOR AT THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD STATION
IN NEW YORK CITY

and everywhere the steps have standard treads. There is never any variation in this respect.

At the bottom, just in front of the lowest step, a series of treads is to be seen moving toward the stairway. These fit closely together and furnish a level, uninterrupted surface. It is upon this moving platform that the passenger steps. . . . There is no sudden jar. It is very easy to step on—ladies and little children are quite equal to the task. As one stands upon one of the treads he soon finds that it begins to rise, at first very slowly and then more rapidly, until there is a vertical distance of eight inches between it and the tread behind. This relation is strictly maintained up the whole stairway, until one reaches the very top.

One of the earliest escalators erected was the one used at the Paris Exposition of 1900. This is now in a department store at Philadelphia. In several of our large cities moving stairways are now in constant use. One of the most important services to which the escalator has been put is shown in its installation at the Wood Worsted Mill at Lawrence, Massachusetts. Here eight escalators convey the 6000 operatives to and from the several floors.

The ability of the escalator to carry a large number of people lies in the fact that it is *continuously in operation*, without slow-downs, gradual starts, or stops at the different floors. As Mr. Springer puts it, "like Tennyson's brook, it flows on forever." The passengers get on and off while it is in motion.

There is a large ascending escalator at the new Pennsylvania Railroad Station in New York City, connecting an underground level with that of the street.

THE STARTING POINT OF THE ARYANS

ANOTHER Scandinavian student, K. F. Johansson, has tried to solve the problem concerning the original home of the Indo-European races. Writing in *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm), and basing his opinions on the combined results of modern anthropology, archæology and philology, he gives his full support to the theory which places that home near the Baltic, and more particularly in northern Germany, southern Sweden and the Danish islands. He finds that all known lines of emigration by Aryan races may be traced back to this focal point, and he clinches his conclusion by attempting to prove that the national conditions mirrored in the earliest forms of Aryan languages are to be found in their entirety only at or near that focal point.

This Swedish writer holds that even the Aryans of Asia must at some time have come from Europe, and he means that such a movement has in it nothing more difficult of acceptance than the proved movement of the Huns from Mongolic Asia to the heart of Europe. This introduction of Aryan groups to India, he thinks, must have taken place in the fourth millennium before Christ, and he thinks that those groups started from a region lying eastward and southeastward from that now occupied by the Slavs of Russia. He then traces the main Aryan movements within Europe itself and the western part of Asia.

The Armenians came from the west, from Cappadocia in Asia Minor, after having crossed the narrow straits near the Black Sea as the vanguard of the general Thracophrygian movement in that direction. The starting point of that movement was probably Roumania or some region lying to the northeast of the Carpathian Mountains. The Greeks are known to have come from the north, but it has only recently been shown that they reached the ocean and the southern part of the Greek peninsula as early as 1500 B.C. It seems now probable that their movement began in the third pre-Christian millennium, and that it started from the eastern part of present Hungary.

Philological evidence indicates that the Italic groups originally must have had the Greeks for neighbors on one side, and Germans and Celts on the other. It is likely, in the light of present knowledge, that they once lived in western Hungary, and what is now Bohemia. Little is known about when or how they reached their final homes on the Italian peninsula, but there are signs of their having moved southward to the Po valley in

that same third millennium which seems to have been so rich in similar emigrations.

The Celts are supposed to have had their original home along the River Main, in what later became the provinces of Thuringia and western Bohemia. They are thought to have moved in a western and northwestern direction toward the end of the second millennium B.C. The Germanic groups are thought to have had their centrum in southern Sweden, the Danish islands, and Jutland. Their movement was the latest in beginning and lasted down to historical times. Their emigrations are supposed to have occupied more than a thousand years, from 500 B.C. to 600 A.D. And when a question is made as to the ways followed by all these groups, the answer seems to be that, with but few exceptions, they moved along the rivers—starting along those that empty into the Baltic and continuing along those flowing toward or through the regions where they finally settled.

Turning to the evidences of philology, the Swedish writer finds that the original home of the Aryans must have known the various kinds of grain, but not garden vegetables.

It must have had the oak for its principal tree—as shown by the fact that the root of our word for tree, *dreoum*, was originally the name of the oak alone. Other trees found in that home were the birch, the willow, the fir, the hemlock, the ash, the aspen and the elm. The animals found there included bear, wolf, deer, elk, wild boar, beaver, otter, squirrel, goose, duck and swan. It had ice and snow in winter, and knew at least three seasons: winter, spring and summer. The principal grain was barley, to which the name of "corn" was given and from which later the Germanic name for all the cereal plants was taken. The importance of the barley points especially to a region with short summers, and serves in connection with the absence of vegetables to fix the southern part of Sweden as the likeliest home for the original Aryans. Another evidence tending to the same conclusion is found in the invariable description of the true Aryans as tall, blond, and long-headed. He thinks it only reasonable to hold that the region where this type to-day is found in its greatest purity must be looked upon as its oldest home.

But of great interest it is to note that while Johansson traces the movement of our predominant modern races from north to south, he also believes that the seeds of our modern culture were first sown in tropical or semi-tropical countries and moved northward. In other words, the highest degree of vitality was fostered in a temperate, not to say harsh, climate, and the highest degree of culture

needed for its first start a region with easier conditions of existence. Modern civilization, finally, has sprung from the mingling and intermingling of these two principles as they have expanded in directions that were diametrically opposed.

EASTERN POTENTATES AND THEIR IDEALS

THERE is probably some truth in the assertion, made by Mr. V. B. Metta in the *Hindustan Review*, that people take it for granted that all Oriental monarchs were despots. This writer sets himself the task of defending the maligned potentates; and it must be admitted that he acquits himself very successfully. "Both the East and the West," he says, "think that all the evils wrought by kings in days of yore are now to be wiped out by establishing republican or constitutional governments everywhere!"—an idea due to "the brilliant but impossible theories spread during the French Revolution." But careful analysis, he maintains, shows that great as were the republics of the East, such as those of Carthage, of the Buddhist period in India, and of the early Moslem Arabs, the glory of these "pales before the splendor of Oriental countries governed by great rulers." This is equally true of the West also; for "one can safely say that European races also have been greater under kings than under republics or constitutional governments." In almost every walk of higher life, "Asia has always been the constructor of ideals." She looked upon a king as "the sublime manifestation of all the admirable human faculties, in other words as an *avatar* of the Almighty on this earth."

The high regard which a Sarsanian ruler of Persia had for his position made him style himself the King of Kings, the Prince of Peace, the Savior of Mankind, a Most Real Deity in the sight of men. A Moslem Caliph was called "the Sultan of Sultans and the Vicegerent of Allah upon earth." We know also that one Egyptian Queen was known as the "Bride of Ammon"!

And if their rulers were wicked, oppressive, or unjust, the Asiatics did not always forget "the divine duty of tyrannicide or of deposition."

Among the great qualities which "have immortalized the names of Eastern sovereigns not only in Asia, but in the whole world," Mr. Metta assigns first place to humility. We read:

The Caliph Omar, under whom the Arab Empire had already made the civilized world humble, was a truly humble being. Abder-Rahman the Great, whose reign of half a century saw Spain on the

highest pinnacle of glory, left the world after having written the following on a piece of paper: "O man of understanding, wonder and observe how small a portion of unclouded happiness the world can give even to the most fortunate." The mighty Mohmoud II., after the conquest of Constantinople, could not help thinking in the hour of his greatest triumph of the instability of human greatness. . . . These rulers of mighty empires did not disdain to mix with the lowliest of their subjects. Harun al-Rashid is known for his nocturnal excursions among his people, to do justice and to understand their wants. Al Mamun's kindness and toleration are bywords among the Mohammedans of to-day. . . . These Asiatic sovereigns gave away unheard-of wealth to literary men.

The great rulers of China, India, and Japan, following the respective teachings of Confucianism, Hinduism, and Buddhism, have practised toleration toward all human beings. These all-powerful potentates of the East have encouraged art and literature among their people—a thing scarcely possible in democratic countries.

In the court of Timur, learned men sat on the right side of his throne. In Spain and India the sovereign was guided in his actions by the wise men of the country. Under the Moorish rule there were no less than eight large, besides other smaller universities, in Spain. They were the parents of the modern university system in Europe. (The gown put on at Cambridge or Oxford is of Arab origin.) Iyeyasu Kublai, Khan, Chosroes, Shah Abbas, Psenadiand Asoka, the great Akbar, Shah Jehan, Abder-Rahman III., Hakem II., Saladin, Soliman the Magnificent of Turkey, and the invincible Timur, promoted education by founding innumerable schools and universities in their countries or Empires. In fact, the historian, the philosopher, and the man of science, were always rewarded throughout the East by their bountiful sovereigns.

The mighty Tamerlane, on returning from one of his Russian campaigns, said: "Now I shall devote my time to making my subjects happy. The world shall become a Paradise under my reign." And he began to put his theories into practice. He looked into everything for himself, having neither favorite nor minister to lead him astray. The city of Samarkand became the most beautiful and renowned city in the world under him. While he was as fond as other Oriental rulers of building magnificent palaces and mosques, he also created, according to this writer, schools, colleges, hospitals, canals, and bridges.

Another great quality of Eastern potentates was generosity toward a conquered race. When Spain fell at the feet of Tarik, the Arabs entered the country with a firm resolution to maintain the noble traditions of their race. In religious matters the Moors were so generous that in one case they gave one half of a church to their captives for their use, reserving the other half for their own religious

services. Under the Moslems the Hindu and the Spaniard could rise to the highest post.

To-day, Mr. Metta admits, there are "many princes and kings in the East who possess very few qualities worthy of admiration." It is on account, he thinks, of such impotent rulers that the Asiatics are attracted toward democracy.

HOW PSYCHOLOGY AND MYSTICISM ARE RELATED

A DECIDEDLY hostile attitude toward all that side of modern psychology which deals with hypnotism, with the subconscious, with telepathy, and with everything that comes under the head of "psychic research" is assumed by Professor Anathon Aall, of Christiania University, writing in *Samtiden* (Christiania). He does not want to deny any fact that may have been brought out by such speculations, but he demands, with Helmholtz, that such facts be interpreted by means of natural rather than supernatural explanations. And, until such explanations have been found, he thinks that both facts and theories must be more or less "held at bay."

Taking up the various claims made by the representatives of what he calls "speculative or mystical psychology," he points to certain natural laws of universal application which almost every one of those claims seem to contradict. These laws are:

The sum of energies within any given system of reality remains unchangeable; (2) The unit that occupies space is sole possessor of its own particular place; (3) Every movement is proportionate to the energy that caused it; (4) An individual consciousness, all psychic activity that can be actually observed and methodically studied, is connected with a physical organ: the nervous system.

Because of the first law, it will not do to bring forward alleged new forms of energy at will, as this or that theory requires it. It will not do, for instance, to let a soul, without roots in any material form, add energetic impetus to a mechanical process, and then to withdraw that same soul, without a physical trace left behind it, when the needed explanation has been furnished.

The second law, concerning the impenetrability of matter, is not disturbed by those ether vibrations which probably underly the Roentgen rays.

Nor is it disposed of by the fact that certain radioactive elements are capable of finding a way between the molecules of various bodies. Consequently one must regard "materialized spirits" as nothing but brain centers, without standing in the nature we know. The world into which they are supposed to make their way is already "occupied." There is no place for them in a space where everything not consisting of pure ether must be classed as gaseous, fluid or solid bodies. When reference is made to "materialized spirits," we have either to deal with a vague metaphysical expression, or with a lack of meaning that cannot be taken seriously.

Most of the theories worked out by this speculative psychology are, according to Professor Aall, based on analogies drawn in particular from radioactivity, invisible rays and wireless telegraphy. In regard to these and others, related analogies, he says:

The phenomenon of hypnotic suggestion occurs in the same nervous system that gives rise to all other phenomena of consciousness. All facts related to electro magnetism are determinable by potentials that can be mathematically measured, and they are contained within geometrically determinable lines of energy. The ultra-violet rays are invisible as rays, but not in their chemical effects. And what is the lesson to be drawn from the radioactive elements? That the elements making up the universe perhaps may change from one form into another, but not that those elements themselves, that is *matter*, may be held non-existent. Recent physical discoveries have rather tended in an opposite direction; for they seem to prove that no world-conception can be built up out of energy alone. Matter is also required for such a purpose, even if this matter in the end should be reducible to a single, universal protoform.

Professor Aall concludes that only by attacking each problem from its psycho-physical side will it be possible to preserve the necessary continuity in our sciences of the soul. And each continuity is a condition for an actual progress in knowledge. What is new must be connected with what is already known, or we cannot be said to know anything about it at all.



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GIRLS ENAMELLING CHEAP CLOISONNE FOR EXPORT AT THE TAKATANI FACTORY, KYOTO, JAPAN

JAPANESE FACTORY WORK FOR WOMEN

THE Western world hears a good deal about the miserable condition of Japanese working girls. That they ought to receive better treatment is obvious, when we consider how important a factor they are in the industrial life of Japan. Indeed, the factories and workshops in the island empire are kept in operation mainly by female toilers. So we are told by Mr. Toyohara, who writes in a recent issue of the *Insatsu Sekai*, or *Printer's World* (Tokyo).

According to the latest statistics Japan has 337,999 female operatives, showing an increase of 50 per cent. as compared with the figures of ten years ago. As against this large number, male operatives total only 249,627. Entering into further details, Mr. Toyohara states:

There are only very few trades in which female operatives are not employed, but the manufacturing industries in which they are mostly engaged are weaving, spinning, tobacco, match, straw-braid, chinaware, paper, printing, and bamboo-work: In the following five industries from 75 to 99 per cent. of the total operatives are females:

Industry	Number of Female Operatives
Weaving.....	72,917
Spinning.....	70,376
Tobacco.....	17,958
Match.....	14,434
Straw-braid.....	12,383

It is no exaggeration to say that these industries are practically in the hands of girls and women. Withdraw the army of female operatives, and the Japanese industrial world would virtually come to a standstill.

Their importance as a factor in our national existence will be brought home more forcibly to

us when we consider the following figures showing the values of some of the articles manufactured by them: The yen is equal approximately to 50 cents.

Articles	Value in Yen
Textiles.....	210,335,000
Matches.....	15,517,000
Straw-braids.....	4,730,000
Silk yarn.....	3,237,000
Cotton yarn.....	45,607,000

This table shows only a few notable examples. It we take into consideration all the branches of trades participated in by female operatives, we will find that the major portion of our wealth is being produced by women. And yet our working girls receive very small wages. In the spinning trade they get only 24 sen (or about 11 cents) per day, in the weaving industry their earnings per diem hardly exceed 29 sen (about 14 cents), while the wages of those employed in other manufactures are much smaller.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF AMERICAN MILLIONAIRES AS PHILANTHROPISTS

THE special intention of Mr. Carnegie's Peace Endowment to promote mutual knowledge and understanding between the inhabitants of different countries could not fail to be marked with pleasure abroad where a similar impulse is equally strong in intellectual circles.

This knowledge and keen insight into transatlantic conditions is strikingly shown in the inquiry as to the aims and results of public gifts in America which Signor Giuseppe Gentile contributes to the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome). Signor Gentile's reflections are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Formerly the majority of the gifts were devoted to local educational institutions and passed later into the broader field of foundations of general character with spheres of action extending over the entire country, such as the Rockefeller General Education Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

This interest and care of millionaires for popular education is a reflection of the veritable passion of the American mind for a perfected scholastic system. To this passion America owes the absence of extreme ignorance in the masses and the levelling influence of a widely spread medium degree of culture. It would at first sight excite wonder in a superficial observer that a nation like the United States, where the intensity of financial life and feverish speculative ardor show such lust for gain and material welfare,

should at the same time be the scene of a philanthropic movement incomparably vaster than in any other country. Here we have a confirmation of the theory of the continual alternation of selfish and altruistic impulses in the human soul. Men who fight the hardest battles on the stock exchange and in commercial enterprises, in the continual aspiration for unlimited wealth, experience a feeling of moral repose from their own deeds, conflicts and preoccupations when they dedicate their substance wholly or in part to the public cause.

There can be no suspicion of a simulated philanthropy, although there may have been cases in which the true motive was the desire to expiate unscrupulous methods in acquiring riches or to obtain social consideration. Of the sincerity of the majority of the donors, there is proof in the fact that not infrequently they remain anonymous or voluntarily deprive their gifts of individual character by devoting them to purposes open to general contribution.

If the philanthropic movement, however, is more intense in America than in Europe, it is perhaps in no slight degree due to the differences in the actual and historical conditions of the new and the old world. In the old world the greatest obstacle to beneficence is the strong sentiment of integral conservation of the patrimony in the bosom of the family,—a sentiment derived in part from the old hereditary tradition and in part from

the difficulty of great gains and rapid acquirement of wealth. In other cases the patrimony is associated with the recollection of a long and difficult struggle carried on through several generations and in some instances with their origin in the old feudal grants.

In America, on the contrary, a new land, favored by immense natural resources, while family tradition is weak or non-existent and gain relatively easy and disposing by its facility to openhandedness, the sentiment for integral patrimonial conservation is barred by a particular disposition of mind in the American. He is keenly aware of the value of a passion for gain as a stimulative force to work and activity, and dislikes the settling down into a passive enjoyment of wealth—into what is commonly called "living on one's income"—and as he himself has lived, he wishes his own descendants to be industrious and self-reliant.

These circumstances so eminently characteristic of the American people form a favorable soil on which the seeds of religious influence, patriotism, and other motives flower in the millionaire's philanthropic liberality. For the Americans can be considered as perhaps the most religious of contemporary civilized nations. Their religion is not confined to belief but is a special form of social intercourse. It is not a vague and sterile sentiment, morbidly subjective, but a belief which, in accordance with the active and practical American character, is chiefly expressed in humanitarian collective activity.

Patriotism as a motive is equally important. Their history, their vast and rich terri-

tory, growing political power and visions of future pre-eminence are impressed on the youth by the schools which act as a powerful crucible to unite in a uniform, intense nationalism the myriad racial elements gathered together from the ends of the earth. Patriotism is the mainspring of an extended program of physical racial improvement by controlled immigration and propaganda of hygiene and sport. Intellectual improvement is to be furthered by the wide diffusion of instruction and the creation of an artistic atmosphere where hitherto the artistic traditions have failed. Thus while one group of millionaires are purchasing as many valuable pictures, statues and curios as possible, another group enable New York to enjoy the best European operatic and program music.

In conclusion Signor Gentile notes as the last tendency the conspicuous single and joint gifts for certain vaster projects which have aroused no little opposition on the ground of the danger of any form of concentrated wealth—even when immediately intended for the public good. He says:

Taken as a whole, the population of the United States enjoys to-day superiority over all other countries in all material aspects of life and in the greater diffusion of the primary elements of intellectual life. This development of the masses constitutes the true basis of American democracy and from its further progress alone can the old democratic traditions await their salvation as a remedy to the ever increasing tendency toward class and caste differences. It may be that the future historian, pausing to consider the present period of American civilization, will mark as a valuable aid to the cause of the people the philanthropic work of the very class of millionaires which separated by wealth and power seemed to put most in danger the old traditions.

WHAT IS THE UNISLAV LEAGUE?

COMMENTING upon the measures taken lately by the Russian government against certain catholics, such as the expulsion of the Jesuit Wercinsky, the dismissal of the Bishop of Mohilev and the investigation of the Jesuit organizations, the *Kreuz-Zeitung* (Berlin) is inclined to regard those measures as provoked by the catholic propaganda of the Unislav League. In a recent editorial this journal says that, in March 1910, Count Orłowsky, who claims to be a nephew of Princess von Sayn-Wittgenstein, sent out 25,000 copies of an open letter to the Russian Council setting forth as follows the aims of the Unislav League, which was recently founded in Lemberg:

(1) To establish among Slavs the principle of catholic unity; (2) To propagate among Slavs a catholic spirit through Unislav publications and clubs; (3) To group together in a catholic dominion all the autonomous Slav nations; (4) To engage in peaceful action, refraining from revolutionary violence; (5) To preserve the autonomy of the nations constituting the future Slav dominions by securing for them a suffrage system, equality before the law, freedom of worship, individual guaranties; (6) To restore to Poland her frontier of 1772.

This manifesto was preceded, however, by a note which read: "Every endeavor to gain freedom, being sacred, demands self-sacrifice which may be carried, as the cardinal's oath put it, *usque ad effusionem sanguinis*."

The writer in the *Kreuz-Zeitung* goes on to

tell of another letter addressed to the Russian Council, and in which Count Orlowsky offers a prize of \$10,000 for the best essay on various topics of European politics and in particular of the ways and means of reconstituting the Kingdom of Poland and bringing about closer relations between the Slav nations on one side and France, Spain and Italy on the other. This letter is intended to be "a counterweight for the orthodox absolutism, for the protestant supremacy and the Prussian hegemony." To quote further:

Should the ideas advanced by Orlowsky be some day realized practically, the world would derive the following benefits: France would recover Alsace and Lorraine and the frontier of the Rhine; the various Germanic states would gravitate towards Austria; Poland with a population equal to France's would, as the "foyer" of catholicism, become a very important factor in the European equilibrium and would constitute an obstacle to the German advance and to the Czarist autocracy. Poland would suppress the heathenish modernism, and as soon as Russia had become catholic would place herself under Russia's protection as well as

Bulgaria and Servia which would join the universal church.

Count Orlowsky, we are told, further produces "an imposing array of sympathizers headed by 61 dignitaries of the church, cardinals, archbishops, bishops." Among them the *Kreuz-Zeitung* is "appalled to find Cardinal von Kopp prince Bishop of Breslau, the Bishops of Munster, Freiburg and Paderborn." It says:

"Fully as amazing is the support promised to the Unislav League by the University of Breslau and the President of the French Republic. The impression we gather is that a huge amount of advertising has been secured for a criminal utopia, and we hope that the high dignitaries of the German catholic church whose names figure on the above mentioned list will disclaim any connection with the society to which Orlowsky has endeavored to add luster by the use of their names. Neither can we feel surprise if the Russian government adopts whatever measures seem best to combat the propaganda of the Unislav League in the western provinces which are claimed to be a part of the Poland of 1772.

THE FIRST ITALIAN THEATRICAL MUSEUM

ALL who owe their purest artistic joy to the appeal of Italian drama or the nearer charm of Italian musicians will delight in the account given in *La Lettura* (Milan) by Signor Croci of the new Museo de La Scala formed by the Sambon collection of theatrical relics.

Portraits are certainly the most attractive part of a museum and invoke most potently the spirit of the past. From the Milan opera there is the great and yet so touching figure of Malibran, the early victim of her fame and passion for art, represented in an oval miniature of Villa Croce in 1832, the year of her first Neapolitan triumphs, and a wax model with her profile for the medal coined in her honor by the city of Milan in 1836. During the latter period, Malibran ordered for her fiancé, Carlo Blériot, the violinist, a portrait of herself by the painter then in vogue, Luigi Pedrazzi. Gay and melancholy by turn, fragile and possessed by a constant fever for her art, the singer avoided the irksome sittings for painters, and only love for her fiancé induced her to pay several visits to Pedrazzi. The portrait now in the new museum shows her in the costume of Desdemona, open at the throat and with the ample Venetian cape, and holding in her left hand a nosegay of flowers the initials of whose names spelled "Carlo." This ten-

derly romantic superstition was suggested to the artist by Malibran herself, and it is piteous to pass to the inferior English print of her death a few months after her marriage.

This marriage had been delayed by difficulties in securing her divorce from the American banker Malibran.

Among the other portraits the most famous is Ferdinando Quaglio's miniature of Grassini, which Napoleon had ordered of the Lombard singer as Dido. Malicious chronicles of the time asserted that Grassini in turn had given the Emperor palpable proofs of her admiration.

Grisi is shown in a pastel before a mirror, wreathing her hair with a chaplet of pearls, and a sister of Maria Gaetana Agnesi is seated at a spinet awaiting inspiration for the music that made her illustrious in Milan of the seventeenth century.

Miniatures or pastels evoke the graceful figure of the English balleteuse, Fitz-James, who twirled at the Scala in 1844, and the famous Gertrude Righetti-Georgi, who a little less than a century ago created Rosina in the *Barbiere*. Beside her is the portrait of Rossini's first wife, the Spanish singer Isabella Angela Colbran, as Sappho, scepter in hand, and very like Goya's Maria Luisa of Parma.

Another remarkable resemblance to a later celebrity is that of Maria Caterina Serassi,

the singer and organist, to George Sand. The Italian lady died very young in a convent where she had retired after her brilliant successes and her portrait in the stiff flowered corsage relieved by a graceful scarf holds us a moment with its mingled strength and artificiality.

From these echoes of half-suspected tragedies we find contrast in the comic effigy of Domenico Biancolelli, the Bolognese actor who carried the glory of the Italian theater to the court of Louis XIV. His daughter, Caterina, known only as Colombina from the grace with which she recited the rôle, holds a score before her and a rose in the left hand just above the love knot on the Watteau bodice. The collection of majolicas and statuettes revive too the gay personages of the Italian comedy of the day when they reigned on the European stage. Arlecchini, Brighella and Pulcinella laugh at us from the faded grace of the Capodimonte porcelain that has the rare values of vieux Saxe.

The Chevalier Sambon collected with predilection the figures and vases dating from the reign of that Carlo III of Naples who sent for a workman from Dresden but always caused the mould to be destroyed that he might be the only possessor of each masterpiece. The most precious, perhaps, of these statuettes is that of Capitano Spacca, a Neapolitan rival of Capitaine Fracasse, in slashed coat decorated with playing cards, dancing and strumming on the guitar in a meridional ecstasy of mirth. Archaic musical instruments alternate with later ones and

the imagination is tenderly amused by the spinets and psalteries and clavichords over whose saffron keyboards wander like dead leaves the delicate fingers of the ladies of the day addicted to gallant madrigals, and by the harps afford much opportunity for display of rounded arms and sudden upward glances at attendant cavaliers.

On cursory examination some of the objects in the archeological collection seem to have little connection with the theater, but one remembers, for instance, that dancing was one of the first scenic forms, as we remark the antique Greek vase with its design of slim youths and maidens, and the Tanagra dancers, actors and poets. Grotesque masks like that of a Pulcinella unearthed in Asia Minor were used for stage decorations.

Particularly noteworthy among the marbles excavated from the ancient theater at Capua is a mask of Comedy, open mouthed and with half closed eyes and curled hair garlanded with flowering vine and clutched by a griffon's claw. There are quantities of Greek and Roman coins relating to the horse and chariot races and athletic exercises, and the curious 161 bronze medallions coined on the occasion of victories in the Hippodromes and circus. These are in great part of the imperial epoch and particularly of the time of Nero, but some commemorate the gladiatorial combats, others fights with wolves, hunting and musical entertainments.

It is a matter of no little pride for the Milanese to have added to their operatic past a museum unique in theatrical history.

WHERE MEN SHOULD "PLAY FAIR"

FOR her article entitled "Sincerity in Social Life," appearing in the *Contemporary Review* (London), Lucy Re-Bartlett deserves the thanks not of fellow members of the so-called "weaker sex" only, but of all right-thinking men also. The attitude of men toward marriage is a subject requiring considerable skill in the handling; and to this the writer in question has added a temperateness of language and a moderation the absence of which might well have been excused, considering the sense of wrong which must inevitably be present to any woman who discusses the matter conscientiously. Premising that the duty of mutual fidelity is inscribed in the marriage laws of every country of the Western world, but by no means in the heart of every Western man who enters into

marriage, and assuming that the laws themselves are responsible in part for this, making as they do the consequences of infidelity much lighter for the man than for the woman, the writer is of opinion that "most of all perhaps the cause is to be sought for in the polygamous nature common to the inferior and even to the average man, be he of the East or of the West." And she adds:

But whatever the reasons, the fact is certainly as we state it; many men know even at the time of marrying that they are not likely to keep their bond; a still larger number hope perhaps to keep it, but when they do not, scarcely feel themselves in fault.

And the unfairness and insincerity of this is the point we wish for the moment to insist upon. Not the graver aspects which are recognized and much discussed, but just the simple unfairness which seems to be insufficiently considered.

Every man has a right to his views, be they low or high. He has also got a right to express them in his life up to a certain point. What he has not got a right to do is to force conformity to them upon another human being whose views may be very different.

It may be well that for a certain level of men, fidelity to one woman is not possible. And every man's thinking is according to his life and nature. To men of this stamp the polygamous mode of life may honestly seem right, and it would be impossible to make any higher idea enter into their consciousness. Of such there is only one thing to say—that they should play fair. They should not enter into a bond which they cannot, and do not even, in many cases, desire to keep—above all, they should not unite themselves to women who expect the bond to be kept, and could not have entered into it on any lower terms.

Leaving the question of purity entirely aside, it is this which makes men's attitude to marriage in many cases so dastardly a thing. A compact is made of the gravest and most far-reaching nature—a compact so binding that in some countries there is no withdrawal from it on any terms. And the conditions are not fairly stated in the commencement: marriage is offered to woman in the Western form, and man does not tell her that he will probably keep it in the Eastern.

Occasionally the mentality of the woman is of the Eastern type also, in which case the situation works out without open disaster; but when there is a different spirit in the woman we get tragedy of the worst kind. "Why," it is asked, "cannot man play fair, and state himself for what he is to a woman before he marries her? If after such frankness she still cares to face the situation, the risk is hers. But the bond should be entered into with sincerity on both sides, not with deception."

Some may argue that this sincerity is not possible because, "under the influence of love, a man is not in the condition to report fairly, nor woman to judge dispassionately." But, it is answered, "man may not be able to tell his future in these conditions, but he knows his past. If he tells this fairly, not only the facts, but the manner in which he reports them, will reveal much of his character, in which character lies the future."

Fair-minded readers will admit the force of the following extract from the article under review:

Is there no rudimentary sense of honor in men to counsel this frankness and in society to demand it? If in any other relation a man procures what he desires on false pretenses, it is called by a very ugly name, and even becomes a penal matter. But that he secures into his keeping a woman's whole life on false conditions—this is not penal, nor even severely judged by society.

Men must not think that because in most cases woman accepts afterward the position

which she finds, this means she would have accepted it beforehand.

Sometimes her father's house may not be open to her, and she may have no means of support. Often, too, the complication of children enters in, and, rather than desert her children, a woman may decide to support anything. But this does not mean that she loses her trapped feelings. . . . The position is too strong for her, and she accepts it; but in many cases she feels that she would never have entered into it if she had only known, and this she does not forget.

The writer does not spare the delinquents of her own sex. We read, for instance:

And whilst there is any considerable body of women in the world asserting this heresy—their right to be impure because men are impure—how can pure women expect that men will wholly understand them or judge their sex only by its truer representatives? Let them clear out the traitors in the ranks if they would be understood—let them educate their sister women. Let them point out to such the awful error of regarding man as their model—let them make clear that the truest guide for every woman is the sensitive heart and spirit and naturally pure impulses which God, in most cases, has placed within her. . . . And let it be made clear to these women that this sensitiveness, indetachable from their womanhood, will be most surely their salvation or their damnation according to their use of it.

We have space for only a few more extracts from this article which will well repay perusal in full.

Fair play—is it too much to ask? From all, perhaps, but surely not from many. Many men there are who, while they do not shrink from sensuality, would frankly shrink from being guilty of cruelty, or cowardice, or dishonor. Let them realize that they *are* guilty of all these things when they bind, in ignorance, a sensitive woman to a vulgar life, and perhaps some of them may think more seriously before doing it. . . .

As woman has had patience with man through many centuries, so let man find a little for her to-day. Let him seek to understand rather than oppose her, to know her heart, and mind, and soul, as he has never known them through the centuries of subjection, and never could, since woman in those conditions could not know them herself. It is a *companion* which awaits man in woman to-day—surely a far more glorious thing than a slave. . . . Then in her new state he will find how infinitely greater are her love and tenderness, how infinitely richer the treasures which she has to bring him—in every way.

Carlyle said, "Only in a world of sincere men is unity possible—but there in the long run it is as good as certain." Never between the sexes has there been this sincerity. With courage in women and fair play in men the sexes would come to understand each other, and society see the dawn of better things.

WILL THE MANCHU SURVIVE?

AMONG those subjects concerning which the popular conception is erroneous must be included the Manchus. Manchuria, their original home, has been of late years so often on men's lips; the long and successful reign of the Empress Dowager Tzu Hsi, with its many and remarkable developments, has kept in view evidences of such masterful statecraft that the average man is wont to assume that the Ta Ching dynasty will continue, like other threatened empires, to survive somehow. To those who are conversant with the facts, however, it is known that the relatively few Manchus remaining in Manchuria are extremely rude and ignorant. Writing in the *National Review* (London), Mr. J. O. P. Bland says: "To-day the pure-bred Manchu stock of Manchuria amounts to less than 10 per cent. of the inhabitants, and preserves little or nothing of the attributes of a dominant race. The Manchu language has also died out . . . so that the race has neither literature nor enduring traditions capable of arousing it from its lethargic decay."

Tzu Hsi realized the rottenness of the Manchu state. She ruled China for half a century not because of any help from her ignorant and effete kinsmen, but by the sheer force of her own courage and intelligence, "instinctively solving the problems of government by a masterly policy of *divide et impera*, preserving its equilibrium by the shrewdest use of all available resources, and by the constant diversion of hostile elements." Toward the close of her days, the Empress Dowager realized that the future of China must depend upon the immediate adoption of a policy of radical reform. She realized that Manchu rule in its present form was surely doomed. She realized that if China was to be preserved as a sovereign state, it must be by means of Chinese energy and intelligence grafted on to the Manchu stock. In 1905 she sent out a high commission to study the institutions of civilized countries east and west, and to report on the adoption of such as they deemed desirable. She also appreciated the fact that, as compared with that of European powers, the military capacity of China was insignificant. She therefore set about putting the house in order, equipping its defenses on Western lines. But education and administrative reform were in her opinion the surest foundation on which to build up a regenerated empire. She therefore brought to her aid the Chinese viceroy Yuan Shih-kai, the ablest and strongest man about

her, and on his advice authorized a program of constitutional government. But Tzu Hsi is dead, Yuan Shih-kai is living in forced retirement, and chaotic intrigue reigns.

The Empress Dowager's death has in fact completely changed the whole situation. The South has viewed with increasing resentment and alarm the evidence and results of Manchu inefficiency and disorganization. The proceedings of the National Assembly have revealed the hopeless rottenness of the metropolitan administration; and only the certain fear of Japanese intervention has prevented the anti-Manchu movement from reasserting itself with renewed force.

According to Mr. Bland, some of the natives themselves are becoming aroused over these conditions:

For some time past it has been apparent that the élite of Chinese patriotism and political energy is profoundly disgusted with the muddle-and-drift methods of their so-called rulers and with the notorious corruption and women-led factions of the court. . . . Two years ago, before the real object of Prince Ito's mission to Manchuria was suspected, before it had been realized that America's loudly trumpeted rôle in Manchuria was *Knox et præterea nihil*, and that England had tacitly abandoned her part in the long-drawn farce of the "open door," there still appeared to be some hope of keeping the Chinese Empire together, pending the necessary work of reform. That hope is now finally extinct. Manchuria, Mongolia, and the New Dominion are irretrievably doomed to that "amalgamation" which overtook Corea, to division at the hands of the Russian and Japanese "guarantors" of the *status quo* in those regions.

It is evident that as Manchuria ceases to be a part of China the Manchus also must abdicate as rulers of the dismembered Empire. In the tea-houses of the capital, men to-day talk openly of an ancient prophecy to the effect that the Ta Ching dynasty will come to its end in the "Keng Shen" year (1920); and an extraordinary number of anti-Manchu books have lately appeared and been freely circulated, even in the North. Press and politicians, however, alike recognize the fact that it is to the interests of Russia and Japan to keep the Manchu government in its place; and the commercial powers of Europe naturally prefer the *status quo*, however rotten, to the tremendous possibilities of a Chinese revolution; and this knowledge imposes caution on Young China. It cannot be doubted, however, that the "hand-writing is on the wall" as regards the passing of the Manchu.

IS RUSSIA ENCOURAGING ALBANIA'S REVOLT?

THE uprising of the Malissore tribe of Albanians against the Ottoman government and the open aid given them by their brethren of the "Black Mountain," and, it is believed, also by the Montenegrin government—despite all official denials—has troubled the European chancelleries a good deal for the last few months. The entire Turkish press has given that question much consideration. According to various authoritative journals and opinions it seems that the danger zone of Europe now lies around the new kingdom of Montenegro, and her 230,000 shepherd inhabitants.

The general European opinion seems to be that Turkey is oppressing the Albanians and trying to crush out their autonomy, as well as to abolish many of their traditional privileges. The Ottoman press, on the other hand, devotes itself largely to accusing Montenegro, "egged on" by Russia, as the offender. The journals of Constantinople maintain that the Montenegrin government has disregarded its treaties and all neutrality laws by subsidizing Albanian refugees, sheltering them, giving them moral and material encouragement, allowing its own people to join hands with them actually if not openly. The rebellion would have been easily put down, say these journals, had Montenegro remained neutral. They accuse Italy and Russia of backing Montenegro. The *Yeni İkdam* (New Advance) expresses its opinion thus:

There is no doubt that Montenegrins are continually joining the rebels and that the latter are escaping across the border to get arms and munitions, many of these being even armed with Montenegrin military Mauser rifles. It is a fact that, contrary to official assurances, Montenegrins are aiding the rebels. . . . If their government succeeds in enforcing the neutrality laws, the rebellion will not spread, otherwise the rebels will always escape to Montenegro if necessary, and thus the movement shall continue and be enabled to assume larger proportions.

In discussing the matter fully the *Jeune-Turc*, a radical journal published by the Turks in French language, whose aim it is to give the Turkish point of view to Europeans generally, observes:

The dynasty of Petrovitch-Niégoch [in Montenegro] is related to reigning houses of some great

powers. Is it not the duty of these powers to act in an imperative manner so as to insure peace to our northern Albania? . . . Nobody will contradict us if we say that King Nicolas I is able to stop, by a simple order, the complicity of his subjects in the revolt. Let him forbid them from taking part in the movement, let him close his border to our rebels, and peace will be fully established in Albania. Instead, he tries to give us advice. Others imitate him . . . the Pope has also criticized us, as well as other influential circles. What then can our government do? . . . From a careful reading of the European press, one can see the aim of our adversaries, small and large. According to them it ought to be easy for our neighbors to put us out of Europe, if the Albanian movement and others in preparation are successful.

Late in May, Russia, through her representative at Constantinople, sent a note to the Turkish Foreign Minister protesting against the concentration of Turkish troops on the Montenegrin border. The newspapers of the Turkish capital treat this note with frank resentment. They regard its terms as very offensive, and profess to see in it an intention to arrest the progress of Young Turkey at any cost. On this point the *Jeune-Turc*, the journal already quoted from, observes:

The Black Mountain [Montenegro] is in fact a Russian province. It is from St. Petersburg that the strings are pulled to have the *voivodes* of the *Tsarnagora* execute all kinds of movements. Today we are trying to suppress a rebellion, which was instigated by some irresponsible parties in Russia and Italy. Montenegro has declared, not long ago, that she would even allow our troops to follow the fleeing bands into her territory. Now the Porte is concentrating her troops to put an end to this trouble once for all. . . . There can be no doubt about her intentions being peaceful. It would be absurd even to imagine that Turkey could have any desires on Montenegro or any other country. So "Imperial" Russia, whom the affair does not concern at all, becomes anxious about peace. . . . How does the Russian government consider the concentration of our troops as a menace to peace? And what is her rôle in this? Russia gives advice to Montenegro, even orders. This is well known. Why, then, did this same Russia allow Montenegro to become the accomplice of the Malissores and to disturb the internal peace of her neighbor? Foreign bands are hindering our development and tranquility, so that they may benefit from it later. . . . All this is a very valuable lesson for us and will have the effect only to strengthen our solidarity, our union before the foreign danger. . . . We must have peace at home to be able to struggle with all due energy abroad.



NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

A Mortgage for \$600,000,000

BUSINESS borrowers of much or little are concerned in one of the month's biggest financial items. James J. Hill announced the execution of a \$600,000,000 mortgage on the property of the Great Northern Railroad. Simultaneously came the sale of \$20,000,000 of the new bonds to be secured by that mortgage, the largest one ever recorded on railroad property in this or any other country. Two months ago Mr. Hill, to all appearances, was despairing of getting any new money for his properties on satisfactory terms. A remark of his was quoted in these pages to the effect that "money is very cheap in Wall Street—until you try to borrow it. It is cheap only to some; you or I could not get any of it." But after all, Mr. Hill seems to have paid proportionately less for his \$20,000,000 than any of the rest of the railroads have paid for their money. He had higher grade bonds to offer in return than most of them have, however.

Mr. Hill's reputation as a prophet of business—a reputation, by the way, which is almost world-wide—has caused a great deal of special significance to be attached to his determination to make the huge Great Northern mortgage at this time. He has undertaken to provide opportunely for the needs of his railroad during the next half-century. And the size of his undertaking is generally accepted as a measure of his optimism on the future of the country, and particularly that part of it known as the great empire of the Northwest, of which he is called the builder.

The relative facility with which the country's railroad, industrial, and public-service corporations are able to supply themselves with new money to carry out their plans for "improvement, additions and betterments" is always an important factor in forecasting future business. The theory is, of course, that the spending of this new money for wages, materials, supplies, and so on, if it is substantial in amount, makes for general activity in trade and industry.

It is significant, therefore, that since the first of the year these corporations have obtained in domestic and foreign markets more

than a billion dollars. This is between \$75,000,000 and \$100,000,000 more than they obtained during the first half of 1910.

Here are the totals (compiled by the *Journal of Commerce*) of bonds, notes, and stocks sold by the various companies up to June 1:

RAILROADS			
	1911.	1910.	Change.
Bonds.....	\$420,385,900	\$381,252,640 +	\$39,133,260
Notes.....	234,410,000	135,180,000 +	99,230,000
Stocks.....	64,269,000	48,259,360 +	16,009,640
Total.....	\$719,064,900	\$564,692,000 +	\$154,372,900
INDUSTRIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS CORPORATIONS			
Bonds.....	\$146,627,000	\$169,523,000 —	\$22,896,000
Notes.....	31,176,000	21,100,000 +	10,076,000
Stocks.....	95,453,050	161,976,600 —	66,523,550
Total.....	\$273,256,050	\$352,599,600 —	\$79,343,550
Grand total...	\$992,320,950	\$917,291,600 +	\$75,029,350

During June a large additional amount of new bonds was sold with the railroads maintaining their position as the principal borrowers, as indicated by the above figures.

Investors and the Trust Decisions

INVESTORS all over the world are watching with keenest interest the metamorphosis of "big business" in this country.

Their interest is centered not alone upon the Standard Oil and the American Tobacco companies, those immense enterprises which must proceed at once to effect changes in their organizations in conformity to the recent decrees of the Supreme Court, but also upon a score or more of other industrial combinations to which the court's most recent interpretation of the Sherman Anti-trust law may possibly be found to apply. Even now the "billion dollar steel trust" and the "sugar trust" are being investigated with a view to ascertaining whether cases may not be established against them under the Sherman law. There are resolutions before Congress calling for similar inquiry into the affairs of the "woolen trust."

But the new situation which these companies have been compelled to face is everywhere being accepted in a pretty matter-of-fact way. The tranquillity on the part of the investing public and the complacency on the part of the corporations themselves, with

which the Supreme Court mandates in the Standard Oil and Tobacco cases were received, would scarcely have been thought possible a year or more ago. Long before the decisions were handed down, however, the public's mind had been made up to the likelihood that, in any event, the court would be "reasonable"—that even though the two defendant companies were condemned, there would be no confiscation of property, no destruction of underlying values, to cause losses among the thousands of holders of their stocks and bonds.

It was gratifying—though of course not unexpected—to find, particularly in the text of the Tobacco decision, specific reference to the regard which the court held for the interests of the investing public. The sane conclusions at which the average investor had already arrived were confirmed in almost every respect.

Tobacco Bonds

THE American Tobacco Company is in many respects the most extensive industrial combination the world has ever seen. In reconstructing this enterprise so as to remove those elements of its organization which the Supreme Court has declared make for "undue restraint of trade," it will be necessary to find solution for one interesting problem, in particular, not presented in the case of the Standard Oil Company.

The latter is not a debtor company to the investing public; in reorganizing, it will have to consider only its stockholders, or partners in the business. The Tobacco Company, on the other hand, will have to satisfy, in addition to its stockholders, a large body of creditors, the holders of its "debenture" bonds, or promises to pay, aggregating approximately \$101,000,000. Its treatment of these obligations will afford not only a unique test of the investment status of "debentures," as a class, but also a valuable guide to other corporations which may find it necessary in the future to undergo changes in financial structure in the process of making themselves eligible to enumeration among the "good trusts."

As most of the readers of this magazine probably understand, the Tobacco "debentures," like all bonds of their type, lack the security of a mortgage on any specific property. They are merely claims, prior to those of the stocks, on the property, earnings and profits of the corporation. It may be said, however, that inasmuch as there is a

relatively insignificant amount of mortgage indebtedness outstanding, and as the company has agreed not to execute any mortgage on its property without recognizing and confirming the priority of the "debentures," they are rated as high as many widely distributed bonds dignified by the phrase "secured by deed of trust." They are safer than a great many others.

Bankers have all along held the opinion that, even in the extremity of a final liquidation of its business, enough would be realized from the Tobacco Company's estate to pay off the bondholders at par and leave something substantial for the stockholders. But, of course, this borders on the theoretical. Scarcely any one believes that any part of the business is to be actually liquidated. The changes will be of form and not of substance.

Nor does it now appear likely that cash payment of the bonds would be made, were there specific provisions for their retirement at the company's option, as there are in the cases of most railroad and industrial issues. The belief is held that, considering the large aggregate amount, such an undertaking, involving, as it probably would, the sale of new securities of some kind, would scarcely be justified by prevailing conditions in the investment markets.

Two courses, therefore, seem to be left open to the Tobacco Company in treating with the "debenture" holders. It may ask for the exchange of the old securities for those of another company—possibly an entirely new one. Or it may arrange to have the obligation assumed by a different corporation.

Reasons for Improved Sentiment

COMMENTING on the Standard Oil case last month in "The Progress of the World" this magazine pointed out that the business world at large seemed to regard the decision as a fortunate one. The judgment handed down in the American Tobacco case—in some respects more comprehensive than the preceding one—was received with even more satisfaction. The two together have been hailed as marking the beginning of a new era of trade expansion and of growing confidence among investors.

Nor did it detract from the generally improved sentiment among bankers and business men to have it announced by the Department of Agriculture at Washington, almost as soon as they had arrived at a satisfactory understanding of the two trust decisions, that owing to greatly increased acreage the wheat

crop this year was likely to be the largest in the country's history, and the cotton crop the largest with the exception of but one previous year. Preliminary estimates by the experts place the yield of wheat at approximately 764,291,857 bushels, nearly 23 per cent. more than last year, and the yield on cotton at close to 13,000,000 bales.

Some Lessons from the "Denver" Dividends

SUSPENSION of the dividends on the preferred stock of the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad, which the company had paid uninterruptedly since 1901 at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, will recall to the minds of many readers the persistence with which the Investment Bureau for a long time has been pointing to that very contingency.

In fact, it seems as though, by reason of the wide discussion accorded to the possibility of such action on the part of the road's directors, most of the holders must have been pretty well prepared for it. If they have acted with forethought the temporary suspension will impose upon them little, if any, hardship. From that point of view, therefore, the passing of the dividend will attract less attention than might be expected of such action in connection with a stock which for a considerable time has been regarded by many investors as a fairly well-"seasoned" income producer. However, the incident contains some nice lessons in investment judgment to which it may be interesting to refer.

The interests of three distinct classes of investors are involved to a greater or lesser degree. Primarily, of course, there are the Denver & Rio Grande stockholders themselves. Then there are the holders of the first mortgage 5 per cent. bonds of the Western Pacific Railway; and finally, there are the holders of the recently issued 5 per cent. collateral trust notes of the Missouri Pacific Railway.

Western Pacific bondholders will receive the announcement with the most satisfaction. It will remind them of the assurance they were given at the time of the purchasing of the bonds that a factor of safety for their income lay in the Denver & Rio Grande's unconditional guaranty of the interest. The Western Pacific is the recently completed line to the Pacific Coast controlled by the Denver & Rio Grande through ownership of \$50,000,000 of its total \$75,000,000 capital stock. As yet the new road has been unable to earn enough to pay its own way, that is, to

meet the interest on its bonds. It is admittedly to conserve its own resources, so as to be able to "make good" its guaranty on the latter securities and thus to protect its interest in the new property, that the Denver & Rio Grande has discontinued its dividends.

The interest of the Missouri Pacific note-holders in the incident is considerably more remote. In fact, the circumstances are such that it might very well be disregarded except for the principle it illustrates in the matter of judging "collateral trust" securities. It comes about in this wise:

Missouri Pacific is the owner of a large amount of the Denver & Rio Grande preferred stock, acquired by purchase a number of years ago. When the former road came to raise new capital last May, it put up this "Denver preferred" as the stock is called in the parlance of Wall Street, as part security for its new notes. Now, of course, the value of this security is temporarily impaired. Therefore, were it not for the fact that there is a big margin of other sound collateral still protecting the notes, their standing would be proportionately impaired.

In this day of "combinations," "communities of interests," and the like, in both the railroad and industrial fields, the fortunes of one enterprise may to so great an extent depend upon the fortunes of another that in purchasing securities of any kind investors will always do well to look out for intercorporate relationships, such as are here indicated.

Postal Savings Banks

AN official of the Post Office Department is quoted as saying: "At the present rate of increase, Postal Savings deposits will be \$20,000,000 by the first of next year. We have proved that it is a sound business proposition. The Government issues about \$100,000,000 in foreign money-orders annually and the express companies a similar amount. We figure that the new banks will ultimately keep all of this here."

If this prediction be borne out, it appears that the Postal Savings banks in the United States are destined soon to become as successful as those in either the United Kingdom or France, the principal countries where systems have been in operation for a great many years.

It may, perhaps, be wondered whether this optimistic official is not doomed to disappointment if he really supposes that the great annual outpour of money to foreign

countries, as represented by the Post Office and express company orders, can be completely diverted to the Government's depositories of savings. However, it would take but a small proportion of the estimated total of \$200,000,000 each year, added to the other savings funds which the banks are expected to attract, to cause the aggregate deposit in our own offices to equal, if not to exceed, within a comparatively short time, those of the English and French banks.

Some idea of the extent to which the people of other countries make use of such institutions as these may be gained from the following statistics of operation of the Postal Savings system in the United Kingdom for 1908, the latest year for which complete returns are now available:

Number of bank offices.....	15,239
Amount of deposits during the year.....	\$218,033,698
Total amount, including interest, standing to credit of all open accounts at close of year.....	\$783,356,802
Number of deposits during the year.....	18,379,991
Average amount.....	\$10.92
Average amount to credit of each open account.....	\$68.18

Statistics of the French banks show that on December 31, 1909, the number of deposit accounts was 5,542,882, and that the deposits, including interest, aggregated \$316,456,000, an average of about \$57.

Nearly a thousand United States post offices have thus far been designated by the Department to receive savings deposits, and this number is being added to at the rate of about 150 a week. In January, the first month during which the system was in operation here, the average deposit was \$16.14. In April, the latest month for which figures have been published, it had risen to \$31.57.

Over \$2,000,000,000 of Exports

COMPLETE returns on foreign commerce for the fiscal year ending June 30 will show the country's exports to have reached the enormous total of over \$2,000,000,000. On this basis, with total estimated imports of about \$1,530,000,000, the balance in favor of the United States will be shown to be pretty close to \$500,000,000.

Actual figures for exports and imports during the eleven months ending with May

show the former to have been \$1,907,041,830, and the latter \$1,405,282,514. For the single month of May both exports and imports exceeded the largest figures ever recorded for a corresponding month.

In the following table, the 1911 fiscal year's exports, imports and credit balance are compared with the figures for two previous years:

	Total Exports	
1911.....	\$2,030,000,000*	
1910.....	1,744,984,720	
1909.....	1,663,011,104	
	Total Imports	
1911.....	\$1,530,000,000*	
1910.....	1,557,819,988	
1909.....	1,311,920,224	
	Excess of Exports	
1911.....	\$500,000,000*	
1910.....	187,164,732	
1909.....	351,090,880	
	*Estimated	

The New Government Bonds

UNEXPECTED success has crowned the efforts of Uncle Sam to establish the bonds of his Government on an independent investment basis. That his credit ranks the highest in the world is evident, not only from the fact that for the \$50,000,000 3 per cent. Panama Canal bonds he received bids aggregating more than three times the amount of the offering, but also from the fact that the average price bid for the bonds was slightly more than 102 $\frac{1}{4}$, showing that he will have to pay but little more than 2.90 per cent. for the loan.

The "basis" of 2.90 per cent. on which the new Panama bonds have sold compares with 3.09 per cent., the real interest earned on both British consols and French rentes at their average market prices during 1910, and it is in fact lower than the average "basis" on which either one of these two popular Government issues have sold since 1906.

A large proportion of the \$50,000,000 Panama issue has apparently gone into the hands of individual investors, since it was not attractive to the banks because the bonds are not available for additional circulation. The success of the loan indicates pretty clearly how many people there are who place "safety" ahead of everything else in considering where and how to invest their savings.



THE NEW BOOKS

OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE, NATURE, AND SCIENCE

AMONG a half-dozen new books evidently published with special reference to the season's reading, perhaps the most attractive, from the point of view of literary charm, is a volume by John Muir, entitled "My First Summer in the Sierra."¹ This book has appeared, during the last few months, in serial form, in the pages of the *Atlantic Monthly*; but the illustrations, reproduced from photographs by Herbert W. Gleason and from drawings made by Mr. Muir himself in 1869, greatly enhance the interest of the text. The publication of this work reminds us that Mr. Muir's acquaintance with the region, of which he has written so much and so entertainingly, dates back more than forty years. This present volume is devoted to Mr. Muir's diary of the summer of 1869, telling of his explorations and experiences while in charge of a flock of sheep in the Yosemite.

"The Cabin,"² by Stewart Edward White, like earlier volumes by the same writer, is an easy, informal discourse on things that the present-day hunter and fisherman learns in the "big woods, and is full of practical suggestions to the man who does not yet know, but is ready to be instructed. The illustrations are from photographs of camp and forest.

More in the nature of a manual or handbook is Harper's "Camping and Scouting: An Outdoor Guide for American Boys."³ For the rapidly increasing number of young Americans who are responding to the cry of "back to nature," a book like this, prepared for the express purpose of showing American boys and girls how to make camps, how to prepare for outdoor life, where to go, how to live in camp, how to take care of themselves in the woods and on the trail or river, comes at a most opportune moment. It includes five chapters prepared with special reference to the needs of Boy Scouts, and there is a very practical chapter on camping for girls.

Those Americans,—and their number is growing from year to year,—who plan for automobile trips in Europe during the summer months, will get something more than a series of casual impressions from the reading of Mr. Lee Meriwether's "Seeing Europe by Automobile."⁴ This volume describes a five-thousand-mile motor trip through France, Switzerland, Germany, and Italy, with an excursion into Andorra, Corfu, Dalmatia, and Montenegro. Mr. Meriwether will be remembered as the author of "A Tramp Trip: How to See Europe on Fifty Cents a Day." When Mr. Meriwether made that memorable journey, a quarter of a century ago, the motor car was unknown as a practical conveyance over the roads of Europe, or of any part of the world. Now that he has celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of his tramp trip by making the same tour in an automobile instead of afoot, he is free to confess

that the modern method is far the more expensive, but gives some figures and suggestions tending to show that it is really not as expensive as is commonly supposed. It may interest motorists to note that the total cost of boxing Mr. Meriwether's 28-horsepower roadster and carrying it from New York to Europe and back came to just \$234.80.

At last we have in form for popular circulation the "Report of the Commission on Country Life,"⁵ which was submitted to President Roosevelt two years ago. It was the purpose of this commission to determine the present status of country life in the United States, to point out the main deficiencies, and to suggest lines of action and inquiry. The commission looked on its mission, not from the point of view of technical farming, but with reference to means whereby country life may be redirected to the end that a better rural civilization may be developed. As Mr. Roosevelt remarks in a letter printed as an introduction to this volume, "the strengthening of country life is the strengthening of the whole nation."

The vigorous campaign now in progress in this country against the house-fly will be materially helped by a volume⁶ concerning the dangerous achievements of this disease carrier and the measures of destroying it, by Dr. L. O. Howard, the Government entomologist. The suggestions offered by Dr. Howard are of a most practical character, and will be easily understood by readers not possessing a scientific knowledge of the subject. The illustrations are among the best that have come to our notice.

"How to Grow Vegetables and Garden Herbs"⁷ is the title of a practical handbook by Allen French. The book takes the form of a planting table, in which various vegetables are treated under alphabetical arrangement.

While Sir Rubert W. Boyce's work "Yellow Fever and Its Prevention"⁸ is subtitled "A Manual for Medical Students and Practitioners," there is a great deal that will be of interest and use to the general reader. Sir Rubert, who is Holt Professor of Pathology in the University of Liverpool, City Bacteriologist, and a traveler of wide experience in tropical lands, considers the subject in its historic distribution of symptoms and treatment. The volume is illustrated with views and charts.

For more than fifty years the remarkable experiences and theories of the Austrian monk, Gregor Mendel, with regard to the principles of heredity, were ignored. Some five or six years ago, the Dutch scientist, de Vries, rediscovered Mendel's work, and brought it forcibly to the attention of the public. To-day almost every scientific gardener and breeder of cattle has a working knowledge of Mendel's theories. In an excellently illustrated volume, R. C. Punnett, Professor of Biology in the University of Cambridge, now presents a much enlarged and entirely rewritten edition of

¹ My First Summer in the Sierra. By John Muir. Houghton Mifflin. 354 pp., ill. \$2.50.

² The Cabin. By Stewart Edward White. Doubleday, Page. 283 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ Harper's Camping and Scouting. Edited by George B. Grinnell and Dr. Eugene L. Swan. Harper & Brothers. 398 pp., ill. \$1.75.

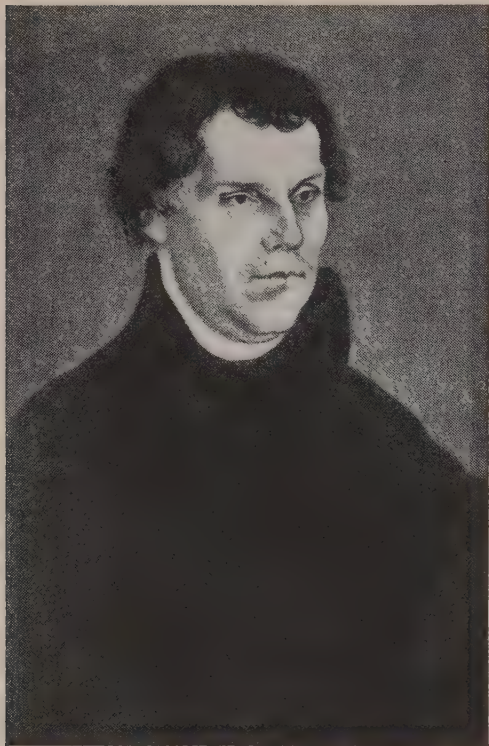
⁴ Seeing Europe by Automobile. By Lee Meriwether. Baker & Taylor Co. 415 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ Report of the Commission on Country Life. Sturgis & Walton Co. 150 pp. 75 cents.

⁶ The House-Fly. By Dr. L. O. Howard. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 312 pp., ill. \$1.60.

⁷ How to Grow Vegetables and Garden Herbs. By Allen French. Macmillan. 312 pp., ill. \$1.75.

⁸ Yellow Fever and Its Prevention. By Sir Rubert W. Boyce. E. F. Dutton & Co. 380 pp., ill. \$3.50.



MARTIN LUTHER

(Frontispiece of "The Life and Letters of Martin Luther")

his former volume, published a couple of years ago, entitled "Mendelism."¹

The fifth edition of Professor G. Frederick Wright's "Ice Age in North America"² is essentially a new book, containing as it does fifty additional maps and illustrations, together with a large amount of new material. The main conclusions of the original edition (1889), which was regarded as an epoch-making work in its field, have been sustained by recent investigations, which have, however, shed much new light upon the general subject. One of the conclusions of vital interest to scientists is that the date of the last glacial epoch was probably much more recent than it has usually been represented to be.

Although popular interest in glaciers as scenic "wonders" has been steadily growing in recent years, there is still a widespread ignorance concerning the actual phenomena connected with glaciers, the broad results and effects of glaciation, and the yearly movements of these enormous ice masses. Some of the more obvious of these questions are answered in the brief article contributed to this number of the REVIEW by Prof. Lawrence Martin, of the University of Wisconsin. In a volume just published by the Macmillan Company, Prof. William H. Hobbs, of the University of Michigan, describes in a very interesting way "The Characteristics of Existing Glaciers."³ In the first part of his book, Professor Hobbs treats of moun-

tain glaciers; in the second part, of Arctic glaciers; and in the third part, of Antarctic glaciers. Far from adopting the common practice of treating the subject of glaciation as if all ice masses having inherent motion were governed by the same laws, Professor Hobbs emphasizes the wide differences which separate such bodies, and shows that the laws which govern their nourishment and depletion are by no means identical.

A book of 442 pages on "The Diamond,"⁴ by W. R. Cattelle, profusely illustrated with pictures of mines all over the world; gives the history of human acquaintance with this queen of the precious stones, and considers the entire subject of a commercial business in diamonds. There is an appendix of diagrams showing the styles of cutting.

NOTEWORTHY BIOGRAPHIES

The reformer Luther has generally been presented to English readers as a great theologian, rather than a great character. It is from the latter point of view, however, that Dr. Preserved Smith has written his "Life and Letters of Martin Luther,"⁵ in which he tells the entire story of Luther's epoch-making career with fulness and vigor, fine historic grasp, and keen insight into the human side of the subject. Dr. Smith has given many extracts from Luther's table talk and letters, in the latter of which, says this new biographer, the reformer so often unlocks his heart. The faults also "are neither dissembled or attenuated." Dr. Smith has made use of a large amount of material bearing upon Luther and his career, which has recently come to light in the libraries of Europe. This volume is illustrated.

Holland's national hero is the subject of a new volume⁶ in the "Heroes of the Nations" series, by Miss Ruth Putnam, who has utilized the material collected for her "Memoirs of William of Orange," the two-volume work published in 1895; but has entirely rewritten the narrative, taking advantage of later information and fresh material. It is interesting to note that Miss Putnam's own preference was to change the title of the work, since she states that she has searched in vain for any contemporary justification of the adjective silent as applied to the Prince. It was his political critics of a later period who first used the word as a derogatory term. English readers, however, have adopted it without the association of a hostile intent, and, by retaining it, avoid the risk of confusing this William of Orange with the later king.

Some months ago, the authorized life of Cecil Rhodes, by Sir Lewis Michell, was noticed in these pages. A sketch of his private life, by his private secretary, Philip Jourdan, now appears as the result of many requests from friends of South Africa's greatest statesman.⁷ It should be said in this connection, that Mr. Jourdan was most closely associated with Cecil Rhodes for eight years prior to his death. It is stated, in the introduction to this volume, that Mr. Rhodes had implicit confidence in his secretary, going even to the length of insisting that he should make himself acquainted with all correspondence, whether marked "strictly confidential" or not. In this volume Mr. Jourdan avoids reference to his sub-

¹ Mendelism. By R. C. Punnett. Macmillan. 185 pp., ill. \$1.25.

² The Ice Age in North America. By G. Frederick Wright. Oberlin, Ohio. Bibliotheca Sacra Company. 763 pp., ill. \$5.

³ Characteristics of Existing Glaciers. By William H. Hobbs. Macmillan. 301 pp., ill. \$3.25.

⁴ The Diamond. By W. R. Cattelle. John Lane Co. 440 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ The Life and Letters of Martin Luther. By Preserved Smith. Houghton Mifflin Co. 490 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁶ William the Silent. By Miss Ruth Putnam. Putnam. 518 pp., ill. \$1.35.

⁷ Cecil Rhodes: His Private Life. By Philip Jourdan. John Lane Company. 293 pp., ill. \$2.50.

ject as a politician and statesman, confining himself exclusively to reminiscences bearing upon his private life. The book will be found to be the most intimate record of Rhodes that has thus far been given to the world.

The life of William Lloyd Garrison, by Lindsay Swift, in the series of "American Crisis" biographies,¹ while sympathetic throughout, is perhaps the most impartial biography of Garrison ever published. Mr. Swift has studied, with great care, the various interests to which Garrison, as an anti-slavery reformer, found himself opposed at various periods in his career. He has given especial attention to the various elements in the anti-slavery movement which refused to follow Garrison's lead, differing from him chiefly on the question of political action. Mr. Swift has endeavored to deal fairly with these contemporary opponents of Garrison, and the result can hardly be said to detract from the traditional view of the great anti-slavery leader as a disinterested champion of what, in his time, he and others regarded as a vital reform.

Mr. Herman E. Kittredge has written an elaborate anecdotal biography of the late Colonel Robert G. Ingersoll.² Mr. Kittredge's account of Ingersoll's boyhood days in New York State, and his later life in Ohio and Illinois, offers many sidelights which serve to explain the attitude of this distinguished orator toward the formal religion of his day.

The Arthur H. Clark Company publishes a biography of "Timothy Flint, Pioneer, Missionary, Author, Editor, 1780-1840,"³ by John Erwin Kirkpatrick. Timothy Flint became a missionary to what was then the far West, namely, the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, as early as the year 1815. The story of his life among the pioneers and frontiersmen of those valleys, from that time on, is told in the present volume.

HISTORY AND POLITICS

A very exhaustive and scholarly study of "The Republican Tradition in Europe,"⁴ by H. A. L. Fisher, of Oxford, a Fellow of the British Academy, is made up of the Lowell Lectures for 1910. Mr. Fisher considers first medieval thought and ancient tradition with regard to governmental systems; then passes to Venice and Florence; then to France and the revolutionary state; then to autocracy and the German revolution; winding up with a chapter devoted to the "permanence of the republican idea in the consciousness of Europe." His study embraces the republican traditions from the fall of the Roman Empire to the foundation of the Republic of Portugal.

The discovery of California, the historians now tell us, was the result of the idea that North America constituted a group of islands near the coast of Asia, hiding the old continent, with its silks and porcelains, from European approach. Beginning with the time that this idea prevailed in Europe, Mr. Irving Berdine Richman traces the history of "California Under Spain and Mexico,"⁵ covering the period 1535-1847. The era of exploration and

the age of the missions are treated adequately, while later chapters unfold events in the Mexican régime. Finally, there is given a concise account of the whole western movement for the occupation of California from the United States, with new light upon the career of John C. Frémont. The volume is furnished with many maps, charts and plans, and an extensive appendix of notes and other supplementary matter.

A rather bitter summing up of the national weaknesses, which are, he believes, resulting in the coming ascendancy of foreign-born peoples in this country, has been written by Monroe Royce, under the title "The Passing of the American."⁶ He considers immigration; our "fatal eloquence"; our business methods; the American woman; our statesmen; our education; and "our official inefficiency."

Whatever may be thought of the social and political wisdom of the Votes-for-Women move-

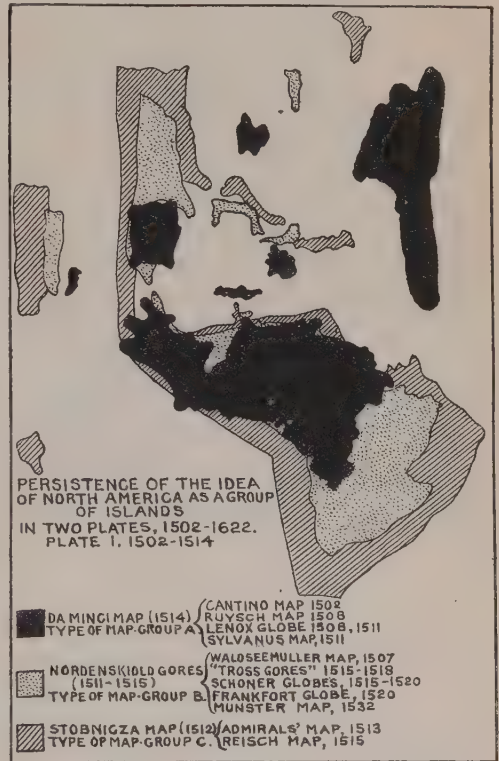


DIAGRAM FROM "CALIFORNIA UNDER SPAIN AND MEXICO"

ment, there is no doubt that, as far as England is concerned, at least, the militant tactics of the suffragettes have changed the propaganda from a somewhat weak joke to a live question of practical politics. The point of view of the suffragettes, which has, perhaps, been misunderstood in this country, is set forth vigorously, and in detail, by Miss E. Sylvia Pankhurst, in a recently published volume entitled "The Suffragette."⁷ This is a first-hand account of the aims and methods and dra-

¹ William Lloyd Garrison. By Lindsay Swift. George W. Jacobs & Co. 412 pp. \$1.25.

² Ingersoll. By Herman E. Kittredge. New York, The Dresden Company. 581 pp., ill. \$2.50.

³ Timothy Flint, Pioneer, Missionary, Author, Editor, 1780-1840. By John E. Kirkpatrick. Arthur H. Clark Co. 331 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁴ The Republican Tradition in Europe. By Herbert A. L. Fisher. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 362 pp. \$2.

⁵ California Under Spain and Mexico, 1535-1847. By Irving B. Richman. Houghton Mifflin Co. 541 pp., ill. \$4.

⁶ The Passing of the American. By Monroe Royce. Whitaker. 189 pp. \$1.20.

⁷ The Suffragette. By E. Sylvia Pankhurst. Sturgis & Walton Company. 517 pp., ill. \$1.50.



SYLVIA PANKHURST
(Author of "The Suffragette")

matic experiences of the leaders of the movement by one who has been an intimate and important part of what she narrates. Miss Pankhurst's mother has been, for many years, a leader in the equal suffrage movement. She contributes an introduction to her daughter's volume. The book is illustrated by snapshots, taken by press representatives and others, of raids, arrests, processions and demonstrations. According to Mrs. Pankhurst, the moving idea of the movement, which is described so vividly by Miss Sylvia in the book under consideration, is compounded of "a passionate love of freedom, a strong desire to do social service and an intense sympathy for the unfortunate."

The Arthur H. Clark Company, of Cleveland, has brought out a history of "Louisiana under Spain, France and the United States, 1785-1807"¹ translated or transcribed by James Alexander Robertson from manuscript accounts by Dr. Paul Alliot and various Spanish, French, English, and

¹Louisiana under Spain, France and the United States, 1785-1807. Translated and transcribed by James Alexander Robertson. Arthur H. Clark Company. 767 pp., ill. \$10.

American officials. This book describes the social, economic, and political conditions of the country in the early territorial period, and contains materials that have been drawn upon by several of the leading historians of that period. The work is in two volumes.

A dozen years ago the monumental work of Friedrich Ratzel, on "Anthropo-Geographie," appeared in German. It was the result of almost a generation of study on the part of its author of the influence of geography and climate upon the movements of development and history. Ratzel made a science of anthropo-geography. His work was so elaborate and scholarly, and, moreover, so closely adapted to conditions obtaining in Teutonic and Slavonic Europe, that to most American and English students it was a closed book. We now have a translation and elaboration of this great work "adapted to the Anglo-American mind." The author of this new volume, entitled "The Influences of Geographic Environment,"² Miss Ellen Churchill Semple, has already brought out a work on "American History and its Geographic Conditions." She has, in the present work, tested and verified the conclusions of her master, Ratzel, and worked them out to a better proportioned system. There are chapters on the "Operation of Geographic Factors in History"; "Society and State in Relation to the Land"; "Movements of Peoples in their Geographical Significance"; "Man's Relation to the Water"; "Plains, Steppes and Deserts"; "Mountain Influences"; and the "Influences of Climate."

Two new books on the American Revolution, each the fruit of many years of diligent research, have been published within a few weeks of each other; and are likely to take rank among the most important historical works of the current year. In the volume entitled "France in the American Revolution,"³ appears some of the best work of the late James Breck Perkins, for many years a Representative in Congress from the State of New York, and long distinguished among his colleagues for historical scholarship. The aid, both military and diplomatic, furnished by France to the American colonies in their struggle for independence, had most important bearings on the course of the Revolution, and cannot be neglected as a factor in the results. Mr. Perkins has given us by far the most complete treatment of the subject in the English language. An introduction, thoroughly in keeping with the spirit of the work, is contributed by Ambassador Jusserand. The first of three volumes on American military policy by Gen. Francis V. Greene is devoted to the Revolutionary War.⁴ General Greene's ability as a writer on military topics was long ago demonstrated, notably in his books on the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78; the Mississippi Campaigns of the Civil War; and the biography of his ancestor, General Nathanael Greene, of Revolutionary fame. In his accounts of the campaigns of the Revolution, General Greene devotes especial attention to the military achievements of Washington, which, in his opinion, have been underrated by many historians, and to the fallacious hostility of the American people to a standing army, for which the nation has more than once paid the penalty.

²Influences of Geographic Environment. By Ellen Churchill Semple. Henry Holt & Company. 683 pp. \$4.

³France in the American Revolution. By James Breck Perkins. Houghton Mifflin. 544 pp. \$2.

⁴The Revolutionary War and the Military Policy of the United States. By Francis V. Greene. Scribner's. 350 pp., ill. \$2.50.

ECONOMICS: SOCIOLOGY

The Hon. Hannis Taylor, whose work on "The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution" gave him an international reputation many years ago, has recently completed an historical treatise entitled "The Origin and Growth of the American Constitution."¹ While this subject is by no means a novel one, Mr. Taylor's plan of treatment is wholly different from that of earlier students of our Constitution, in that he sets forth and recognizes, for the first time, documentary evidence which has an important bearing on the formation of the Federal Government. The recent discovery of the pamphlet written by Pelatiah Webster, in 1783, in which is embodied the first draft of the existing Constitution of the United States, as formulated in 1787, made so profound an impression upon Mr. Taylor that he accepts it as a revelation of the origin of the Constitution itself. He declares that it is "a great thing to know for certain that the most notable of all political inventions had a personal inventor; that the entirely unique and path-breaking creation embodied in the American Constitution came into being in a perfectly normal way; that its birth was neither mythical nor miraculous." Working upon this basis, Mr. Taylor endeavors to unfold the growth of the Constitution according to the historical method, "which regulates all law, public and private, as a live and growing organism that changes as the relations of society change."

EDUCATION

The university, in these modern days of ours, and in the years of the future, must have more to do with the great problem of the new economics: How to make the human spirit more at home in the material world. This is the judgment, set forth with unusual lucidity and charm of style, by Charles Ferguson, in his little volume "The University Militant."² The university, Mr. Ferguson insists, is the church of the industrial republic. "Its standard is the original and final creed of humanity," and its prophetic idea, that of "a city with laws framed for the advancement of the arts and sciences, a city dominated by artistic and scientific experts." Mr. Ferguson undertakes to show that "the spirit of the university should have a political rating." It should gradually achieve a self-supporting status. It ought not to content itself with mere theorizing about the administrative and productive arts. It ought to exhibit them in action. The advance to a material civilization "more refined, more various, and more free, requires that the church, the university, and the political primary shall be telescoped into a single institution." Perhaps the author's idea is best exemplified by a reply he quotes as having been made by the president of the Arizona Territorial University at Tucson, in reply to a question as to why athletics do not flourish at that institution. The educator said: "The faculty here have gone in for the regular sports that are in vogue in Eastern colleges, and have tried to interest the students in that sort of thing. But it is no use; the boys have absorbed their minds in a bigger game than football, the game of besting this desert here with the tools of science. And they are away every holiday with the engineers and irrigators—to the bottoms of mines and the tops of mountains—training for the match."

Readers of Mr. Carter's article on fire insurance rates in the May number of the REVIEW will find a full discussion of some of the problems suggested in that article in Mr. Solomon S. Huebner's book on "Property Insurance."³ This work deals not only with fire and marine insurance, but with surety bonding, title insurance, and credit insurance,—in fact, with all those forms of insurance that grant protection against loss of property. The author has brought together, in compact form, the important theoretical and legal principles and the leading practices upon which the business is based.

One of the ablest exponents of modern Socialism is Mr. John Spargo, whose lectures and writings have given him an authoritative place in the ranks of the Socialist propagandists. His little book entitled "Sidelights on Contemporary Socialism"⁴ is not, however, so distinctly addressed to non-Socialists as to the author's comrades in the movement. It deals with various problems within the Socialist movement itself. The book consists of three lectures,—*"Marx, Leader and Guide"; "Anti-intellectualism in the Socialistic Movement";* and *"The Influence of Marx on Contemporary Socialism."*

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

Prof. John C. Duncan, of the University of Illinois, has written a comprehensive work on "The Principles of Industrial Management."⁵ Professor Duncan is a teacher of accountancy. He has endeavored particularly to make his book useful to accountants and general students of business, as well as to those who are primarily charged with the conduct and management of business undertakings. The book is one that might be used to advantage in schools of business and in all institutions where modern industrial methods are taught.

A helpful adjunct to Professor Duncan's book is the new volume on "Cost-Keeping for Manufacturing Plants,"⁶ by Sterling H. Bunnell, of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. His work not only suggests to manufacturers how factory products may be increased so as to pay a large profit on the large expenditure required for systematic records, but to those accountants and manufacturers who have already moderate methods, the author makes suggestions of methods which he believes will increase the accuracy of the cost system and promote its general usefulness.

Another useful business manual is "Practical Salesmanship: A Treatise on the Art of Selling Goods"⁷ of Nathaniel C. Fowler, Jr. In this work the author attempts to present the principles and ethics of salesmanship, illustrated from the actual experience of men who have given many years of their lives to the business of selling commodities on the road, or behind the counter, or to the management of salesmen and saleswomen. Twenty-nine expert sales managers and business men have collaborated with the author in the production of this book, and the experience of these people is freely drawn upon for the reader's benefit.

¹Property Insurance. By Solomon S. Huebner. Appleton. 421 pp. \$2.

²Sidelights on Contemporary Socialism. By John Spargo. New York, B. W. Huebsche. 154 pp. \$1.

³The Principles of Industrial Management. By John C. Duncan. Appleton & Co. 323 pp. ill. \$2.

⁴Cost-Keeping for Manufacturing Plants. By Sterling H. Bunnell. Appleton. 233 pp. ill. \$3.

⁵Practical Salesmanship. By Nathaniel C. Fowler, Jr. Little, Brown & Co. 317 pp. \$1.

¹The Origin and Growth of the American Constitution. By Hannis Taylor. Houghton, Mifflin. 676 pp. \$4.

²The University Militant. By Charles Ferguson. Mitchell Kennerley. 184 pp. \$1.

FAMOUS ORATIONS, AND SPEAKERS' AIDS

"Famous Speeches"¹ is a collection of the most notable deliverances, in Parliament and elsewhere, by distinguished English orators—with the exception of two addresses by Abraham Lincoln. The speeches have been selected for their historical and oratorical interest, and cover the period from Cromwell to Gladstone. Included in the volume are examples from Burke, Fox, Chatham, Pitt, Sheridan, O'Connell, Grattan, Cobden, Beaconsfield, and Bright, each orator being given a special introduction.

A tastefully printed, thin little volume contains the splendid address entitled "The Fruits of the Tree,"² delivered by the Hon. William Jennings Bryan at the World's Missionary Conference at Edinburgh in June of last year.

Two books for those who would speak well in public are Glenville Kleiser's "How to Develop Self-Confidence in Speech and Manner"³ and "How to Argue and Win."⁴ The chapters are full of suggestive material by an expert on the subject, and will be found very helpful by those who aspire to express themselves with confidence and success either in public or in private.

"Illustrations are windows," said Paxton Hood, and public speakers on almost all possible themes will find an apparently inexhaustible supply of fresh "windows" for their discourses in the new "Cyclopedia of Illustrations for Public Speakers."⁵ This mine of facts, incidents, stories, experiences, anecdotes, and quotable poetry, as well as tables of useful statistics, contains some 800 or more pages and is arranged alphabetically according to topics and furnished with a system of cross references. The material has been gathered from almost every department of human knowledge, including nature, science, invention, exploration, literature, politics, history, geography, as well as the common experiences of life. Care has been taken to insure accuracy, and wherever possible the source is indicated. The work has been compiled and edited by Robert Scott and William C. Stiles, editors of the *Homiletic Review*.

Seldom has history been presented so forcibly to the eye as in Croscup's "Synchronic Chart of United States History."⁶ The work consists of a chart

and a book of text. This thin volume, 8 x 10 inches in size, with less than a hundred pages, contains a graphic outline of American history chronologically arranged under periods. Separate chapters take up the history and development of the Constitution, political parties and their development, slavery, insular possessions, Presidential elections, the progress of the United States, religious bodies, and comparative statistics. Valuable charts, diagrams, and statistical tables on industrial subjects are included. The synchronic chart, however, is the principal thing. This chart is 11 x 43 inches, folding within the covers of the book, and shows at a glance the entire history of the United States. Each century is separately visible, the nation dominating the affairs of that period being shown by a distinct color—red for England, yellow for Spain, green for France, orange for Dutch and so on. The principal events of each period are made strikingly plain, and contemporary happenings in Europe are also shown. The history of each State, as well as that of our insular possessions, stands out clearly to the eye. The work as a whole is "history made visible" in a striking manner.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE

It would appear that of the making of cookery books there is no end, but as Mrs. M. A. Fairclough says in the preface to her new "Ideal Cookery Book,"⁷ cookery is a science that is constantly advancing and needs a "report of progress from time to time." It is a handsome, finely illustrated book of 945 pages that Mrs. Fairclough has prepared. Every recipe, she tells us in this book, has been tested in the Gloucester Road School of Cookery, in London, of which Mrs. Fairclough is principal. A new feature in this book is the statement in each case of the time required for the preparation and cooking of each dish, and the average cost incurred, and when the dishes are seasonable. There is a comprehensive index containing French and English names of the dishes.

An elaborate treatise on "Plumbing and Household Sanitation"⁸ has been compiled by Mr. J. Pickering Putnam, a member of the Boston Society of Architects, and of the American Institute of Architects. For more than a quarter of a century, Mr. Putnam tells us, he has studied plumbing from both the practical and theoretical standpoints. He has written in a simple, popular style and illustrated the volume copiously with views, diagrams and charts. The reader is warned in the preface that he will find "many ideas and conclusions which are not considered orthodox among many plumbers and framers of plumbing legislation." A cursory consultation of the pages of the work indicate that the compiler knows whereof he speaks, and does not hesitate to express his frank opinion.

¹ Famous Speeches. Selected and edited by Herbert Paul. Little, Brown & Co. 456 pp. \$3.

² The Fruits of the Tree. By William Jennings Bryan. Fleming H. Revell & Co. 61 pp. 35 cents.

³ How to Develop Self-Confidence in Speech and Manner. By Glenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 288 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ How to Argue and Win. By Glenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 310 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ Cyclopedia of Illustrations for Public Speakers. By Robert Scott and William C. Stiles. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 836 pp.

⁶ A Synchronic Chart and Statistical Tables of United States History: With a Chronological Text. By George E. Croscup. Windsor Publishing Co. 94 pp. \$1.50.

⁷ The Ideal Cookery Book. By Mrs. M. A. Fairclough. E. P. Dutton & Co. 945 pp., ill. \$3.

⁸ Plumbing and Household Sanitation. By J. Pickering Putnam. Doubleday, Page & Co. 718 pp., ill. \$3.75.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

CONTENTS FOR AUGUST, 1911

Dr. Harvey W. Wiley.....	Frontispiece	The Aeroplane's Marvelous Progress ...	174
		By WILLIAM MENKEL	
		With illustrations	
The Progress of the World—			
What Will the Democrats Do?.....	131	Doing Away with Blindness.....	187
A Mistake of Policy.....	131	By OLIVIA HOWARD DUNBAR	
Why Not a Paper and Pulp Bill?.....	131	With illustrations	
The Senate Approves "Reciprocity".....	132	New Scenic Highways in the Southwest	193
Senator Cummins' Position.....	132	By AGNES C. LAUT	
Law-Making Responsibility.....	132	With illustrations	
Tariff Revision Inevitable.....	133	Our Public Schools as Social Centers... 201	
Would the President Approve?.....	134	By MARY JOSEPHINE MAYER	
Democrats "Making Good".....	134	With illustrations	
Democratic Leaders in the Senate.....	135	Democrats in Congress Making Good... 209	
Fixing the Senate Program.....	136	By SCOTT BONE	
Hoke Smith as Governor and Senator.....	136	The British Empire and the Federation	
Kentucky's Choice for the Senate.....	137	of the World..... 211	
Abuse of Power at Washington.....	137	By W. T. STEAD	
The Canadian Parliament Meets.....	139	Leading Articles of the Month—	
The Arbitration Treaty with England.....	139	Reciprocity with Canada, an Engineering View	216
Our Interest in the New Anglo-Japanese Pact	139	Is America "On the Mend"?..... 217	
Agreeing to Stop Ocean Sealing.....	140	Siberia and Her Economic Problems.....	218
Madero's Progressive Policies.....	140	Tolstoy on Finland..... 219	
Our Attitude Toward Cuba.....	141	A White Australia and the Australian Fleet..	220
Uncovering the <i>Maine</i>	142	China's Success in Her War on Opium.....	221
The Report of the Steel Corporation.....	143	Italy's State Monopoly of Life Insurance.....	222
The Question of Monopoly.....	144	Development of Germany's Colonies.....	223
A "Good" and a "Bad" Trust.....	144	A German Salon of the Romantic Period.....	224
Victory for the Harriman Roads.....	145	The American Painters' Exhibit at Rome.....	225
Average Crops Assured.....	145	The Thackeray Centenary..... 226	
Repelling a Cholera Invasion.....	145	Scientific Management in Our Navy.....	229
The New Commissioner of Education.....	147	A French Iconoclast and Madame de Sévigné..	231
Building Better Roads.....	147	The Measurement of Vision..... 232	
Wisconsin's New Laws.....	147	Phenomenal Dock Development of Liverpool..	233
Alaska's Needs.....	148	The Syrian in America..... 235	
"Investing" a Prince of Wales.....	149	Electrifying a Canadian Province.....	237
The Veto Bill and the Lords.....	150	The Renaissance of the Crescent.....	239
France Has Another New Ministry.....	150	Van't Hoff the Chemist..... 241	
Germany Upsets the Algeciras Convention..	150	Delinquent Women and the Double Standard	
France and England Aroused.....	152	of Morality..... 242	
A Bit of History.....	154	The Misunderstood Man in Germany.....	244
French Expansion in Africa.....	155	Present-Day Political Parties in Germany....	245
Resentment Against German Methods.....	156	The Amazons—Fact or Fable?..... 246	
The Complications of an Austrian Election..	157	The Spirit of the Jew, as Seen by a Dane....	247
Problems of the Near East.....	157	The Novalis Letters: A Discovery?..... 248	
Egypt to be Ruled by Kitchener.....	158	With portraits and other illustrations	
The Bridgeport Railroad Accident.....	159	Henri Bergson, Philosopher or Prophet? 250	
Progress in Aviation.....	160	By EDWIN BJÖRKMAN	
With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations		With portrait	
Record of Current Events.....	161	The New Books.....	253
With portraits and other illustrations			
Cartoons of the Month.....	165		
Admiral Togo, Type of Samurai.....	169		
By ADACHI KINOSUKE			
With portrait			

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Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

DR. HARVEY W. WILEY, PURE FOOD EXPERT

Dr. Wiley, as expert chemist in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, not only drafted much of the pure-food legislation that has gone on the federal statute-books during the past decade, but has been charged, under the Secretary of Agriculture, with the enforcement of most of the provisions thus enacted. He has fought every form of food adulteration with courage and vigor and his persistent efforts have resulted in the punishment of hundreds of violators of the food laws throughout the country. Dr. Wiley has served continuously in the Department for twenty-eight years, and long before he became famous as a prosecutor of impure food manufacturers he had a record for substantial achievement as a chemist. Years ago he made important investigations in the chemistry of soils and materially aided in the establishment of the beet-sugar industry in this country. His "poison-squad" experiments have contributed much to the stock of popular knowledge regarding diet. Dr. Wiley is big of frame and large of heart. He is a hard worker and has come to be regarded as one of the most efficient of our national public servants. (See page 138)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 2

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*What Will
the Democrats
Do?*

As this magazine reaches its readers, at the opening of August, it is probable that Congress will be nearing the end of the special session. Adjournment, however, may take the form of a recess of two or three months. It is hard to believe that in the year preceding a national election the Democrats in control of Congress would be so amiable as to pass the one great political measure demanded by the Republican administration, without proceeding to do many things that would at once benefit the country and enhance the prestige of the rising and hopeful Democracy.

*A Mistake
of
Policy*

Upon the whole, the Democrats have done well. They have, however, made one serious mistake of tactics and of practical policy which even yet it may not be too late to remedy. What the country expected and demanded of the Democrats was a revision of the tariff. If they had been permitted to proceed in the normal and constitutional way they would have been ready with a general tariff revision bill at the opening of the regular session of Congress next December. They were embarrassed by being called into special session before they could possibly prepare a general tariff bill. They were fully justified in offering separate bills making a reduction of rates as respects several different schedules. The serious mistake to which we refer was their failure to bring in a bill dealing with the paper and pulp schedule. This subject was ripe and ready for action. President Roosevelt, in his message of December, 1907, recommended the passage by Congress of a special bill dealing with this wood-pulp schedule. The only reason given by Republican leaders in Congress for not taking up that question in the long session of 1908 was the practical one which led to the deferring of all tariff revision

matters until after the Presidential election. Mr. Taft was a member of the Roosevelt cabinet and was in accord with the proposals in favor of the free admission of wood pulp for print paper. Furthermore, the first and only schedule upon which Mr. Taft's tariff board has been able to complete its work and make its report has been this very one.

*Why Not a
Paper and
Pulp Bill?*

Thus it is hard to see how there could be any excuse whatever for the failure of the Democratic Ways and Means Committee to report a bill removing the high tariff restrictions upon the import of wood pulp and certain kinds of paper,—provided, of course, countries exporting such products to us should levy no export duty upon them and should otherwise conform with usual requirements. Such a bill, promptly passed by the House, could not have failed of passage in the Senate; and it is not easy to conceive of any ground upon which President Taft could have failed to approve of it. The pending reciprocity measure has been practically meaningless, except as a rather clumsy and roundabout way to secure this very object. No one dreams for a moment that this special session would have been called if it had not been for the urgency of the newspapers in their demand for free paper and pulp. But the passage of the Canadian reciprocity measure at Washington does not meet the case. There will still be a determined fight in Canada against reciprocity on many grounds. We do not know whether the Canadians will or will not enact a reciprocity law. What we do know is that the paper and pulp schedule of the tariff ought to be dealt with directly and openly upon its merits, and that the Democrats of the House have fallen short of a clear perception of their opportunity, in their failure to act swiftly upon this particular schedule.

*A Confusion
of
Ideas*

The reciprocity measure would still have remained to be dealt with both at Washington and at Ottawa as might be thought best. But the paper and pulp revision,—as so earnestly demanded by the newspapers of the country in 1907 and as advocated by the Roosevelt administration,—ought to be met in a direct bill overhauling the appropriate schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. As regards Canada, it might be necessary to secure some sort of an agreement regarding provincial regulations before admitting Canadian pulp. The pulp and paper of Newfoundland would, however, be at once available; and there are some other regions where paper-making fibers are produced, from which a moderate supply would probably enter the United States if tariff restrictions were removed. There is not the slightest need of awaiting the dubious processes of getting a reciprocity treaty with Canada into operation before giving the newspapers and other paper consumers of this country the benefits of the kind of tariff reform that even the Republicans had promised them nearly four years ago, and that the Democrats were supposed to favor with practical unanimity. Perhaps the failure to bring forward this paper and pulp bill was due to some curious confusion of mind. Somebody may have supposed that because these articles are mentioned in the Canadian bill they must perforce be left undisturbed as they stand in the Payne-Aldrich law. This is not only a mistake but a rather ridiculous one. The reform of that particular schedule in our tariff ought not in any manner to be made subject to the exigencies of a proposed reciprocity arrangement affecting our trade with Canada alone.

*The Senate
Approves
"Reciprocity"*

The passage of the reciprocity measure in the Senate on Saturday the 22d of July was of course fully anticipated. Almost the exact number of votes the measure would receive had been ascertained many weeks in advance. It was the extraordinary case of a strong majority of Senators voting for a measure when hardly one of them regarded it as either timely or of satisfactory character in detail. The Democrats were voting for it merely because it seemed an incidental step in the process of wrecking the Payne-Aldrich law. Those Republicans who voted for it were for the most part constrained to do so by their relations with the administration, or by reasons of a general sort that were quite apart from the measure itself. Most of the group

of Senators opposing the bill were the progressive Republicans of the central West. They were the only Senators who discussed the measure upon its merits. The interested press treated them with studied injustice.

*Senator
Cummins'
Position*

Thus Senator Cummins of Iowa, who made an extended and unanswered argument against this particular measure in its nature and its details, was twitted and reproached because, forsooth, he now opposed "reciprocity," whereas he had years ago strongly favored "it." This instance is worth citing, because it so aptly illustrates the nature of most of the support of the measure. It is precisely as if, —having at some time committed himself to the doctrine of protection,—a member of Congress should be reproached because on its passage he had made a speech against the Payne-Aldrich bill. The obvious answer is that each lawmaker has a right to say what seems to him just and right when it comes to the concrete application of the principle. It is still true that Senator Cummins has been consistently a supporter of "reciprocity," and he is not fairly to be reproached because he has not been a supporter of that particular measure which at Washington they call "it," and which, apparently, very few of our mid-summer statesmen have taken the trouble to read. Senator Cummins has the habit of studying measures that he debates; and he has not failed to give ample reason why he is opposed at the present time to this particular Canadian reciprocity bill as introduced.

*Law-making
Responsi-
bility*

Naturally, also, he took the safe and solid ground that Congress is responsible for all tariff and revenue legislation, and that this particular tariff bill should have been as much subject to discussion and amendment as any other bill. The doctrine upon which the endeavor was made to force the bill through without amendment was an unsound and dangerous one. The only reason, of course, why so false a doctrine seemed to have any weight lay in the purely contemptuous attitude of the Democrats, who had decided for reasons of their own to put the bill through both Houses exactly as it stood. In our opinion, these were not reasons of high statesmanship, nor were they reasons of the shrewdest party management. But they were fairly plausible reasons; and since they were accepted with practical unanimity by the Democrats of both Houses they must be regarded as serving their temporary purpose. Under these cir-

umstances, of course, the great speeches made by Senators Cummins, Nelson, Borah, La Follette, and other conscientious opponents of the bill, were without any immediate effect. That is to say, they did not change any votes in the Senate. Mr. Cummins offered many amendments which would have added to the free list various manufactured articles to compensate the farmers for the opening of our markets to the farm products of Canada. Generally speaking, those Republican Senators who had agreed to vote for the bill made no attempt to advocate or defend it in debate. Senator Burton, of Ohio, offered the most effective of the Republican apologies for the proposal to force the measure, unamended, to a favorable vote made possible only by the exigencies of the Democracy. The weakness of the Reciprocity bill, in the sense of statesmanship, lies in the fact that it presupposes the permanence of the Payne-Aldrich law at the very moment when the Payne-Aldrich law is being torn to pieces. The pulp and paper question could be much better dealt with by direct revision of the proper schedule. In like manner the questions affecting farm products should also be met in the direct process of tariff revision. The only true argument in favor of this Canadian measure is that it looks like some approach toward closer relations with our neighbor on the north. But the Canadians themselves repudiate such an idea, and insist upon ever closer relations with the mother country beyond seas.

*Tariff
Revision
Inevitable*

The main truth is that the people of the United States are determined to revise the tariff. The more swiftly the process proceeds the better it will be for all interests concerned. Tariff boards can be useful in their modest statistical way, but they are of only slight consequence in an emergency like that which now exists. As these pages have more than once set forth, the tariff-commission method is a Republican proposal rather than a Democratic, and it presupposes a gradual, scientific reduction of duties from the standpoint of the Republican protectionist policy. The Republicans held out this olive branch to the voters of the country last fall, and the voters rejected it with an emphasis that could hardly be mistaken except by those of dull wit. The people of the country believe that there is quite enough information about the production and cost of wool and woollen goods to justify tariff action. There are very few people who believe that as matters now stand



SENATOR BURTON, OF OHIO

the tariff board,—with its statistical tables which are to be held in reserve until next December,—could affect the course of practical legislation or divert the current of public opinion, as respects the wool tariff.

*The Work
is well
Begun*

It happens that two great facts have coincided. First, the country elected a Democratic Congress expressly to revise the tariff; and second, President Taft, for reasons of his own, called a special session of the new Congress to deal with a particular tariff measure relating principally to the demand of the newspapers for free paper and pulp. The coincidence of these two facts naturally led to general tariff activity. The Democrats passed through the House their so-called farmers' free list, passed their bill revising the wool schedule, and gave notice of the early appearance of a bill revising the cotton schedule. In the Senate, a coalition of Democrats and progressive Republicans made it certain that several at least of these bills should be voted upon before adjournment. Except for heat and fatigue, Congress might well enough pro-

ceed with one schedule after another, taking recesses from time to time, and thus getting the tariff work far advanced before the opening of the regular session in December.

*Plain
Sailing for
Congress*

Both Houses of Congress, indeed, ought to face without dodging or flinching the righteous demand of the country for a practical reduction and simplification of tariff schedules. It is not to be supposed that the Senate could adopt House bills without ample debate and some amendment; but there is no reason why there should be hopeless deadlock. Especially it ought to be possible for House and Senate to agree upon bills giving the country needed reforms in the textile schedules, the paper and pulp schedule, and several others. These bills cannot be ideal, nor can they be final as one looks ahead a number of years. The thing that the country expects is a very decided overhauling of the tariff in order to get from the high level of the Payne-Aldrich law down to a very much more timely and defensible basis. From this new level of tariff reform it should be possible to proceed very carefully, and without any haste, along the line of a proper kind of tariff-commission work, such as they have done in Germany and elsewhere, with a view to a future perfection of our national revenue system. There is no need to wait until the Democrats are in full majority in the Senate in order to accomplish this preliminary work of tariff reduction. The progressive Republicans are even better-informed and better-known tariff reformers than are most of the Democrats. It would hardly be reasonable just now to expect any larger measure of tariff reduction than the progressive Senators could be induced to support. But they should be really progressive.

*Would
the President
Approve?*

The question then arises, whether or not President Taft would think it good policy to veto tariff reduction bills as presented to him. It has been said that he would interpose vetoes on the ground that he preferred to wait until the Tariff Board had reported upon the subject matter of one schedule after another. It should be remembered that this Tariff Board has never been charged by law with the duty of investigating these matters. Congress distinctly refused to give it such authority, and struck out of the clause that creates the board those phrases which were intended to permit it to make general tariff inquiries. Under the law, the purpose of the board is to advise the President regarding the applica-

tion of maximum and minimum rates to foreign countries. The fact that Congress has continued to appropriate money for the support of the board, in full knowledge that its legal functions were being exceeded, does indeed imply sanction and acquiescence. It does not follow, however, that the country can be expected to wait for reports from this board, which serves the convenience of the President rather than of Congress, before demanding a general tariff revision. During the pendency of the Payne-Aldrich bill President Taft was known to be in favor of a very considerable reduction of the textile schedules. He did not then ask to have such revision deferred until a tariff board could make reports. If now the two Houses of Congress could agree upon bills revising the woolen schedule and the cotton schedule, it is hard to see upon what ground President Taft could justify the interposition of an executive veto, and the continued maintenance by his own personal act of the Payne-Aldrich schedules, in defiance of public sentiment and in obstruction of the inevitable trend of reform legislation. Of course we do not for a moment believe that anyone has been authorized to declare that Mr. Taft would assume such an attitude. If Congress can agree upon tariff-reform bills, it would seem in line with Mr. Taft's natural impulse and bent of mind to accept rather than to reject such measures as they are sent to him.

*Democrats
"Making
Good"*

Elsewhere this month we publish a brief but well-informed article by Mr. Scott Bone (See page 209), a prominent Washington journalist, who holds that the Democrats in Congress have justified themselves thus far, and who seems to believe that the great Democratic wave that swept the country last fall is to be followed by another and perhaps a greater one in 1912. The stupendous Republican victory of 1908 gave the dominant party an unequalled opportunity. Leadership and conviction would have produced a fairly satisfactory revision of the tariff two years ago; and a broad, unselfish policy, free from the taint of politics and greed, would have led to another Republican victory in the Congressional elections of 1910. The Republican defeat of last year was deserved; and it would seem impossible at the present stage for the party to save itself next year. The leaders of the Republican party at the present moment do not trust each other and do not respect each other. The machine forces throughout the whole land have been brought into line,

through patronage and the use of "steam-roller" politics; but their mood is one of extreme cynicism, and there is no loyalty in their hearts. The Democrats at Washington are making a superior record; although in some cases of local control, as for instance in the State of New York, they are not entitled to so much praise. Under Governor Wilson in New Jersey their record has been not only good but brilliant. Many things may happen in the course of the coming year, and political prophecy is merely a summer pastime.

Democratic Leaders in the Senate Democratic strength and capacity for leadership has not been confined alone to the new House of Representatives, nor yet to State situations dominated by such men as Governor Wilson, of New Jersey; Governor Harmon, of Ohio, and Governor Marshall, of Indiana. The Democrats of the United States Senate, with new men and fresh incentives, are showing a greater power to plan and work along harmonious lines than had been generally expected. It is true that they are not wholly unanimous. Senator Bailey, of Texas, with

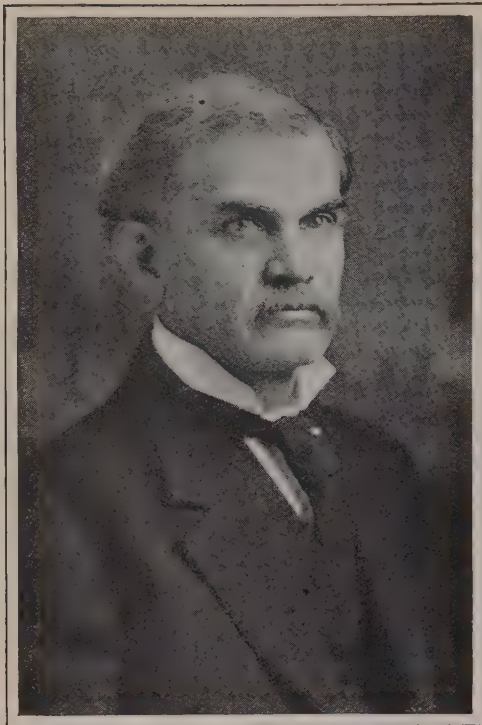


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SENATOR GORE OF OKLAHOMA



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SENATOR PENROSE, OF PENNSYLVANIA
Republican manager of the Senate

one or two associates, pulls against the new, strong forces of his party; but this was expected by those who are well acquainted with his record. Senator Gore, of Oklahoma, took personal lead in the brilliant coup that resulted in the certainty of tariff action at this session. It had been everywhere declared that the Senate would pass the Reciprocity bill but would vote upon no other tariff measure. The progressive Republicans, though not having the Democratic viewpoint upon tariff policy in general, had been forced into such a position that it was not only their obvious right but also for their political advantage to see that the session did not end without action upon tariff measures sent from the other House. Senator Penrose, of Pennsylvania, who is chairman of the Finance Committee and Mr. Aldrich's successor as Republican manager, quickly accepted a situation that Democratic superiority in maneuvering had rendered inevitable. Senator Gore's motion, on June 21, to refer the Underwood Wool bill to the Finance Committee with instruction to report it on or before July 10, came as a complete surprise to most people; but it secured the support of sixteen Republicans and was carried decisively. The Finance Committee, in a somewhat petulant spirit, yielded obedience to the new dominant forces of the Senate by reporting the bill at once, though adversely, giving no time at all for hearings.



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HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS, OF MISSISSIPPI

*Fixing the
Senate
Program*

Since nothing could change the essential facts, the Senate was induced by such practical considerations as heat and fatigue to reach unanimous agreement of dates upon which various votes should be taken. Thus on July 14 it was agreed to vote on Canadian reciprocity on Saturday, July 22. The vote on the Wool bill was fixed for Thursday, July 27. The Farmers' Free List bill was to be finally disposed of on August 1. Congressional reapportionment was to be settled on August 3. Pending questions regarding statehood for Arizona and New Mexico were to be voted upon August 7. For this practical arrangement the Democrats deserve high credit, although the progressive Republicans held the key to the situation. Even if nothing more should be done and Congress should adjourn by the middle of August, the results would have been very favorable for the Democratic party. It would seem reasonable to suppose, however, that the Senate might be induced to vote upon the Cotton bill. In these conferences which have been handled so well from the Democratic standpoint the new Senator from Mississippi, John Sharp Williams, has been taking a position of rapidly increasing prominence. Mr.

Williams was fairly exempt from those unwritten rules that require a new Senator to be silent and unobtrusive. He had recently been the Democratic floor leader of the other House; and his Congressional spurs had already been well earned.

Another Democrat of national importance was elected to the United States Senate on July 12

under circumstances of exceptional interest to his State and to the country. The Hon. Hoke Smith was inaugurated as Governor of Georgia on July 1, and the Legislature, by an overwhelming majority, on July 12 elected him to the United States Senate. This was to fill the vacancy caused by the death of the late Senator Clay, four years of whose term yet remain. The Hon. Joseph M. Terrell had



HON. HOKE SMITH, OF GEORGIA

been temporarily appointed to fill the vacancy, the rule being that such appointments terminate when the Legislature comes into session and makes a choice. As soon, therefore, as Governor Hoke Smith was elected to the Senate Mr. Terrell resigned. It was Governor Smith's intention to serve as head of the State government during the present session of the Legislature, and he wished Terrell to continue at Washington, in order that

Georgia might have her two Democratic votes. But Terrell vigorously refused to serve Smith's convenience in any such fashion. It is not for us to take up the contentions of the political friends and enemies of Hoke Smith. He is a powerful personality and will presumably serve as Governor during the present summer session, with the plan of vacating that office in time to take his seat as United States Senator when the regular session begins next December. Since the existing special session is almost at an end it would have seemed a better plan for Mr. Terrell to have kept his seat until adjournment. The Georgia Legislature sits for fifty days, and Governor Smith has a so-called "reform" program that he desires to carry out in conjunction with the law-making body. There were several active contestants for the seat in the Senate, but Hoke Smith received 155 votes against 60 for his several opponents. He will make a notable figure among the new Democratic leaders at the national capital. He was a member of President Cleveland's cabinet as Secretary of the Interior from 1893 to 1896. His campaigns for the Governorship of Georgia have been familiar to all who are interested in political news.

*Kentucky's
Choice for
the Senate*

While the Senators at Washington have been discussing the propriety of allowing the voters to elect Senators by direct vote, the tendency in many States to find ways to deprive the Legislature of all discretion in this important matter has been manifest to an extent that shows the impossibility of a return to the spirit of the constitutional method. The people will select their own Senators henceforth, whether the Constitution is amended or not. In Kentucky, as in most of the Southern States, the question is settled in Democratic primaries. The results of the primary of July 1 show that the new Senator from Kentucky will be the Hon. Ollie M. James. Mr. James is at present a member of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, and one of the most active leaders of the Democratic majority. He is forty years old and has served in Congress for nearly ten years. He grew up in Kentucky politics, was admitted to the bar at twenty, and for many years past has been the undisputed leader of Kentucky delegations in national Democratic conventions. His oratory has helped to enliven the Bryan campaigns. His translation from the House to the Senate adds another to the aggressive and capable group of new men who are so rapidly changing the tone and



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HON. OLLIE M. JAMES, OF KENTUCKY

the methods of a chamber once filled and dominated by "elder statesmen" jealous of their traditions.

*Abuse of
Power at
Washington*

One of the greatest dangers to which the people of the country are subjected is the possible abuse of power under the amazing growth of government machinery for the regulation of business affairs. The initiative that is given by the laws to administrative departments may be, and sometimes is, used for political or personal motives to an extent that in this free country men are only now beginning faintly to realize. Hordes of inspectors of slight experience and ability, and of character not always well attested, are used in various departments in a way fraught with grave danger. Only the most constant vigilance on the part of Congress and the general public can check a tendency that may lead to the wicked persecution of innocent citizens in the first instance,—though sure to lead in the end to the exposure and disgrace

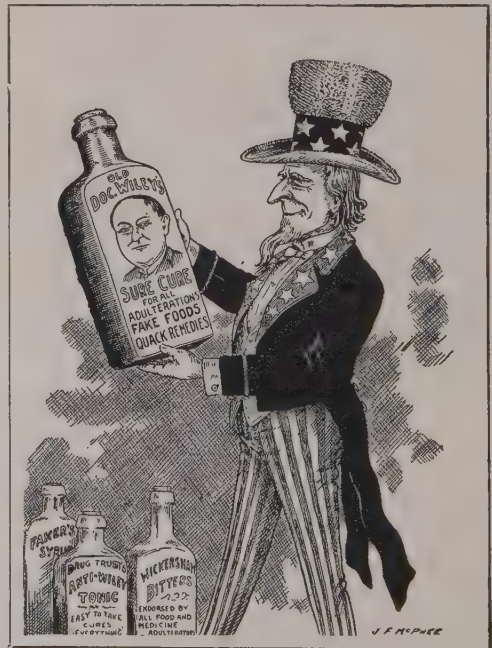


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DR. WILEY AND SOME OF HIS ASSOCIATES IN THE BUREAU OF CHEMISTRY

(From left to right: L. F. Kebler, Chief of the Division of Drugs; Dr. Wiley; Prof. H. H. Rusby, expert assistant; and W. D. Bigelow, Assistant Chief of the Bureau)

of officials who are weak enough or reckless enough to misuse new and almost untried powers. The recent troubles in the Interior Department have been due to the belief that vast private interests were at work behind the scenes to secure their own enrichment. The attempt, last month, to depose Dr. Wiley from his position at the head of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Agricultural Department may or may not have been at the instance of certain aggrieved business interests, and no discussion of that question can be made in these pages until the controversy has been more thoroughly sifted. Our point simply is that the relationships of the Government at Washington to business enterprises of various sorts have become so many-sided and so highly charged with power either to do harm or to grant favor, that they must be kept under constant vigilance. The investigations already undertaken by Congress are necessary, but they must go much deeper before they are ended. Next to reforming the tariff, the chief duty of the Democratic Congress is to investigate the use of power by a growing bureaucracy.



"THIS OLD MEDICINE IS GOOD ENOUGH FOR ME"
From the *Evening Union* (Springfield, Mass.)

*The Canadian
Parliament
Meets*

The Dominion Parliament assembled at Ottawa on the eighteenth of last month, and proceeded at once to renew the struggle over reciprocity with the United States. When the members came together the deadlock on this measure was practically unchanged from what it had been at the time of the coronation adjournment in the middle of May. It was expected that more than a fortnight would be consumed in preliminary tactics. The government, however, stood committed to keep reciprocity as the first order of its business until the agreement was brought to a final vote. In view of the declared opposition on the part of the opponents of the Laurier policy of freer trade with the United States, the present session may be a long one, since there is, in addition to reciprocity, a long program of Parliamentary business to be put through. Early last month the premier returned from his coronation trip to England, and was received with an enthusiasm unequaled even in his long history of favor with the Canadian people. It is reported that Lord Strathcona, at present Canadian High Commissioner at London, will resign in the early autumn. It is understood that the new Governor-General, the Duke of Connaught, who takes office succeeding Earl Grey next month, favors the selection of Sir Frederick William Borden, the veteran Minister of Militia and Defense in the Laurier cabinet, to succeed Lord Strathcona.

*The Arbitration
Treaty with
England*

It was announced simultaneously, on June 28, by the State Department at Washington and the British Foreign Office, that the Anglo-American arbitration treaty had been agreed upon in every important provision, and that it would certainly be submitted to the Senate in the early days of the regular session in December, with a possibility of being ready before the present extra session closes. In these pages, in June, we summarized the provisions of this treaty, and pointed out the respects in which it will be different from other treaties, and advance the cause of international peace. In the main, it may be said, it supplements existing arbitration treaties between the United States and Great Britain, by adding to the list of arbitratable controversies those usually referred to as "involving vital interests and national honor." It provides that negotiations under this treaty shall be direct, the Senate to retain only the right of passing upon the protocol or statement of the question at issue. The negotiations were

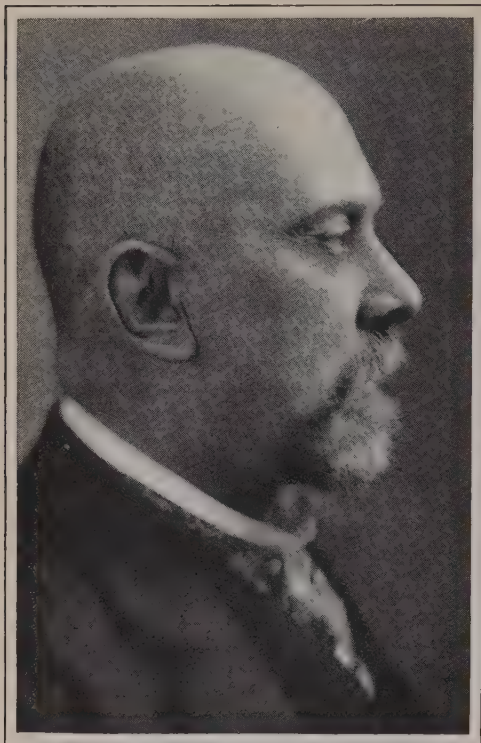
begun between Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce on May 17. At the same time that it was submitted to the British Foreign Office, a copy of the tentative proposal was also handed to the French Ambassador, Dr. Jusserand. President Taft hopes to secure such a treaty with France, and with other nations. It is intimated that the German Foreign Office will also, before long, take up with the United States the matter of unlimited arbitration on the basis of this treaty.

*Our Interest in
the New Anglo-
Japanese Pact*

A revised Anglo-Japanese treaty to replace the present treaty of alliance, which expires next year, was signed in London on July 14. The principal change in the new agreement is that which states that if either party concludes a treaty of general arbitration with a third power, the alliance shall not entail an obligation to go to war with that power. It is understood that Japan readily agreed to this proposition, which, in the opinion of the Japanese, as well as the British press, precludes forever the possibility of war between Japan and the United States. Under the old agreement Britain was bound to lend aid to Japan in case of war with any other nation. Under the new, taken together with the general arbitration treaty about to be concluded with the United States, Great Britain virtually announces that she would never support Japan in a conflict with the United States. The new treaty is to run for ten years. Some of the London journals characterize the situation as amounting to almost a triple alliance between Great Britain, Japan, and the United States, and compliment President Taft on his efforts



THE HOME-COMING OF SIR WILFRID
From the *Herald* (Montreal)



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SEÑOR GILBERTO CRESPO Y MARTINEZ, THE NEW
MEXICAN AMBASSADOR AT WASHINGTON

in bringing it about. Japan's enlightened attitude in this matter should go far toward strengthening her position as a member of the family of modern nations. Meanwhile, on the seventeenth of last month, the new treaty of commerce and navigation between the United States and Japan went into operation. As we have already pointed out in these pages, the important point of difference between the present and the former treaty lies in the omission from the new convention of that paragraph which, in the old, set forth the immigration restrictions objectionable to the Japanese. In the diplomatic note prefacing the treaty, Japan agreed to carry out the spirit of existing conditions with regard to Japanese coolies coming to America. A very gratifying opportunity to show our cordiality of feeling toward the Japanese people is afforded by the visit of Admiral Togo, who this month is to be the guest of the nation. On page 169 we present an intimate character sketch of Japan's famous sea fighter.

*Agreeing to
Stop Ocean
Sealing* The controversy over the seal fisheries in the North Pacific Ocean, between Great Britain, Russia, Japan and the United States, which

has dragged on for nearly half a century, was settled, last month, by an agreement reached by the representatives of the four nations concerned, under the terms of which pelagic, or ocean, sealing in the North Pacific Ocean will be prohibited for fifteen years. It is expected that the treaty will be ratified at an early date by all the four powers. Russia and the United States own great land rookeries where seals can be killed, and they would not lose by the prohibition of deep-sea fishing to anything like the extent that Great Britain (Canada) and Japan would suffer. Therefore it has been agreed that, during the fifteen years' suspension of seal catching in the open sea, Great Britain and Japan shall receive a thirty per cent. share (which may be commuted to a cash payment) in the land catches of Russia and the United States. A patrol will be established to prevent illegal sealing in violation of the agreement. This agreement was necessary, if the seal trade was to be saved for any nation. Regular ocean sealing began in 1882. At that date the herd was estimated to number more than 2,000,000. To-day, because of the reckless slaughter, there are not more than 185,000 living seals. An important provision of the agreement arranges for combined efforts on the part of the four nations, not only to protect the seals, but, if possible, to conduce toward their increase. Secretary Nagel, who signed the convention on behalf of the United States, is reported to favor the conclusion of another international agreement for the conservation of other valuable game, fish and birds which are threatened with extinction.

*Madero's
Progressive
Policies*

There have been many contradictory reports as to the general condition of business and the progress of political and social changes toward a satisfactory status in Mexico. A number of small sporadic riots and encounters between disbanded soldiers and citizens have occurred during the past few weeks, but these have undoubtedly been more an evidence that the reconstruction is actually proceeding than that the country is permanently unsettled. Indication of the sincerity and vigor with which Francisco Madero, the triumphant revolutionary leader, is exerting himself to bring about better economic conditions, is furnished by two manifestos issued by him during the first part of last month. One set forth a new plan for equalizing taxation, which is to be embodied in a bill to be presented at the next session of the Mexican Congress. The other came in the form of a

long telegram to all the governors of the states asking them to coöperate with the central government in a plan for national irrigation, "so that dams and canals may be constructed, waste lands reclaimed, the crops already under cultivation safely garnered, and a repetition of the crop shortages, which during the past few years have made necessary the importation of cereals, may be avoided in the future."

*How They
Are Being
Carried Out*

Madero has already shown himself a man of action. He has himself gone among the revolutionary soldiers, adjuring them to treat the defeated Federals as brothers. He has asked the press to deal with him and his followers with "rigid honesty and sincerity," and has announced that, as a candidate for President, it is his duty to show the people where he stands. "The leader of a triumphant revolution, I must work diligently to see that the people receive all the benefits." He has begun the prosecutions of grafters, big and little. He has begun war on the group of politicians who, under the Diaz régime, were known as Científicos, and who are charged with having dominated the business of the country in their own interest. The control of the Mexican national railways, representing hundreds of millions of dollars, has been heretofore in the hands of these Científicos. The board of directors may be changed by order of the President, and Madero has declared that if the present Provisional President, Señor de la Barra, cannot be induced to change the personnel of this board, he himself will do it, upon his election as chief magistrate of the nation. The regular general elections will be held on October 1, and it now appears that Madero will be the chief candidate, with a practical certainty of election. It is expected, however, that General Bernardo Reyes, the favorite of the military element, and Señor Ricardo F. Magon, a radical of socialistic tendencies, will also be candidates. On July 9 the Minister of Finance, Ernesto Madero, in an official announcement to the representatives of all the foreign powers in Mexico City, made the following announcement which he desired them to give to the public in their countries:

Mexico is now excellently situated as respects its economic condition. As an example of this may be cited the fact that when Señor de la Barra became President the reserve fund in the Treasury was 62,000,000 pesos. It is now 63,000,000 pesos, although but little time has elapsed. Industrial conditions and the labor question are no longer vexatious.

Last month Señor Zamacona was succeeded as Mexican Ambassador at Washington by Señor Gilberto Crespo y Martinez, who formerly represented his country at Vienna. Señor Crespo declares that he represents neither Diaz nor Madero, but the Mexican people regardless of party.

*Our
Attitude
Toward Cuba*

Secretary Stimson, whose vigorous grasp of the duties of his new position as head of the War Department is becoming apparent, last month made a visit to the canal zone, to observe how our great work at Panama is progressing. He also paid a visit to Porto Rico, made a short stop at Santo Domingo, to look into the work of rehabilitation of the finances of that country under the guidance of the United States, and then made a short stay at Havana. Naturally the Secretary desired to observe the progress made in the raising of the battleship *Maine*, and to pay his respects to the friendly government of Cuba. His visit, however, coming so soon after the reports circulated concerning the restless condition in Cuban politics that always precede a congressional election in that republic, caused some rumors to be spread by irresponsible persons, that the United States contemplated another intervention. Secretary Knox took occasion, in a message sent to the American Legation at Havana on July 18, to categorically deny that there was any political significance in Secretary Stimson's visit. He asserted that official duties concerning matters connected with the Panama Canal were the sole reason for the visit of the Secretary of War to the Canal zone. Referring to the brief stay at Havana made by Mr. Stimson, Secretary Knox said, and desired to have the consul make his words public:

The work of raising the *Maine*, which has been carried on by army engineers, was something which the Secretary of War naturally desired to inspect, and it was deemed, moreover, convenient that the Secretary of War and his party should, in returning from Panama, take advantage of the occasion to pay a friendly visit to the republic of Cuba, the best interests of which the United States has so deeply at heart, and to exchange courtesies with the Cuban Government. The Government of the United States has thought it not worth while to deny the false stories of possible intervention which have been circulated in certain sections of the press, the fact being that no such question has been the subject of consideration by that Government, whose sole concern in relation to Cuban affairs in recent years has been that in the rapid development of the splendid resources of Cuba, which will be viewed in the United States with so much pleasure, the process of exploitation should be ever safeguarded by that wise and deliberate economic policy so essential to financial and political stability.



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WHAT THE BATTLESHIP "MAINE" LOOKS LIKE NOW

Uncovering
the
"Maine"

The work of exposing the wreck of the old battleship *Maine*, sunk in Havana Harbor thirteen years ago, has proceeded steadily for several months. Late last month the water had been pumped out of the cofferdam to a depth of over eighteen feet, and the entire upper section of the vessel, much encrusted, and with its confused mass of jagged wreckage, was at last in plain view. The cofferdam itself, about which there was criticism and uncertainty at first, proved entirely satisfactory,

resisting successfully the enormous pressure from the outside. Very little water remained around the wreck, which was embedded in mud to a depth of many feet. This will still require months of excavation. When the hulk has been fully uncovered, it will be carefully inspected and then probably taken out to sea and sunk. The remains of some of the crew and many interesting relics have been recovered. Whether any new and conclusive evidence will be found bearing on the question of the explosion, remains to be seen.

*The Report
on the Steel
Corporation*

On July 1 there appeared the report of Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations, on the United Steel Corporation. This work of investigating the greatest of American industrial companies was begun under President Roosevelt. Commissioner Smith publishes the results, now, after the first ten years of the corporation's life, in narrative form, and with no recommendations. It cannot be said that new or startling facts are uncovered in the document, which seems able, conscientious and dispassionate, but it is of interest in giving the stamp of authority to many matters that have been much talked of, and in bringing them together in a highly impressive way. According to the Commissioners' computation, a salient feature of these first ten years of the corporation's life is that it has reduced the "water" in its capitalization, chiefly by reinvesting earnings, from \$721,000,000 in 1901, to \$281,000,000 at the end of 1910. The report says, "The entire issue of approximately \$508,000,000 of common stock of the Steel Corporation in 1901 had no physical property back of it, and also a considerable fraction, say from one-fifth to two-fifths of the preferred stock, was likewise unprotected by physical property." This gap between property owned and securities issued has been almost two-thirds filled up, as shown above, by the additional investment in the business, during ten years, of \$505,000,000, of which \$435,000,000 was from the profits of the corporation. Commissioner Smith's figures of the total investment of the Steel Corporation, as of December 31, 1910, are \$1,186,982,038. The corporation's own estimate of the present value of its investments is \$1,651,665,142.

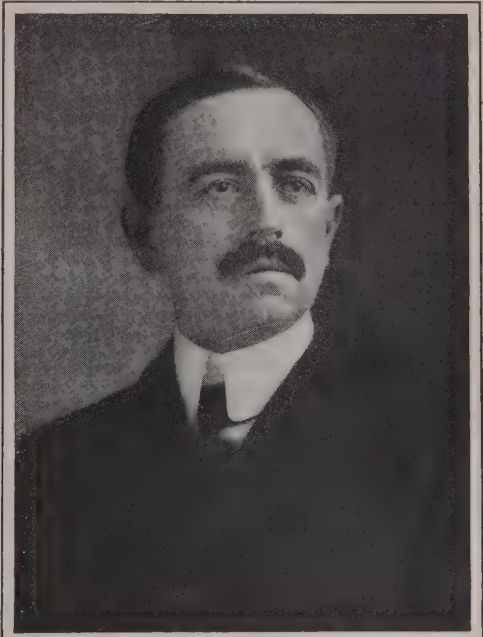
*The Value of
Unmined
Ore*

This great discrepancy between Commissioner Smith's estimate of the corporation's resources and its own estimate comes chiefly in the item of unmined ore. Here the valuation of the corporation is, roughly, \$641,000,000, whereas the investment as determined by the bureau is only \$120,000,000. The report goes into this matter of a proper valuation of unmined ore at some length, quoting various transactions and opinions to show that the figures used for ore value by the corporation, which alone have enabled it to make a showing of physical property commensurate with its capitalization, are much too high. The ore reserves of the great company are accepted by the bureau as being about 1,182,000,000 tons. The corporation values this at

about 51 cents a ton. Commissioner Smith says that it is probably worth less than 10 cents a ton. Commenting on the lease of the Great Northern ore fields, at a royalty of 85 cents a ton, with annual increases of 3.4 cents, Mr. Smith says, "the high royalty named in the lease instead of being indicative of a marked enhancement in ore values, is rather evidence of the extent to which the Steel Corporation was willing to go in order to prevent this ore from falling into the hands of rival interests."

*The Question
of
Monopoly*

It is chiefly in the matter of ore supplies that this report intimates a tendency toward monopoly on the part of the corporation. As to its finished product, the corporation began in 1901 with a volume equivalent to about 60 per cent. of the country's aggregate production, and by 1911 had fallen to a little over 50 per cent. But it has increased very largely, both relatively and absolutely, its hold on the ore reserves of America, and now controls about 75 per cent. of the mines of the lake region, chiefly by lease, and controls altogether more than 2,500,000,000 tons of iron ore. Mr. Smith points out that the leasehold system of controlling iron mines which "lends itself to such marked concentration of ore property for many years in advance (a common term of lease being fifty years) at a comparatively



HON. HERBERT KNOX SMITH, COMMISSIONER OF CORPORATIONS

small cost, involves questions of the highest public importance." This opportunity to "corner" the ore supplies on virtually a margin basis, is heightened, according to this report, by the corporation's control of the transportation of ore in the lake districts. Its two ore railroads operate for 30 per cent. of gross earnings, as compared with an average for American railroads of 66 per cent. Their rate is one cent per ton mile, as against a rate about two-fifths as high for the lowest grade of traffic on many other roads. "This has the practical effect of reducing the Steel Corporation's net cost of ore to itself at upper lake ports, and, on the other hand, of increasing that cost to such of its competitors as are dependent upon the corporation's railroads for transportation." The answer may be made to this objection to high rates and phenomenal earnings of these corporation ore roads, that owing to the nature of this traffic, and the transportation lines being practically entirely dependent upon the mines, the lines must earn at a high rate while the ore lasts, as fifty years hence they may well find themselves, not with a large increment of earning power, as would be the case with other roads, but practically worthless.

*Steel
Syndicate
Profits*

Mr. Smith expressly disclaims any responsibility for deciding what the true capitalization of the Steel Corporation should have been, when it was formed ten years ago, contenting himself with showing what actual property there was behind the securities. But his report decidedly criticizes the amount of commission paid to the promoters. He finds that in 1901 the bankers pledged themselves to produce \$25,000,000 working capital for the new giant business, that they expended \$3,000,000 more for it, and that the syndicate had a "nominal" liability of \$200,000,000, though "it was generally understood at the time that only \$25,000,000 would be called from syndicate members." For this service the syndicate received 1,300,000 shares of stock in the new venture, on which about \$90,500,000 was realized. Of this profit of \$62,500,000, one-fifth went to the syndicate managers, and \$50,000,000 was distributed among the syndicate members. The report says "there can be no question that this large compensation to the syndicate was greatly in excess of a reasonable payment." Without opposing Mr. Smith's opinion as to the unreasonableness of the great profit, it may be pointed out that these Wall Street syndicate

ventures are sometimes very profitable and sometimes very unprofitable, and that this particular venture looks much safer from a vantage ground of ten years after, than it looked at the time. In fact there were, in 1901, many more people in the financial district who predicted dire failure for the steel combination than those who foresaw its gigantic success. As to the yearly earnings of the Steel "Trust," the bureau's report, after a careful revision of the corporation's own figures of its investments and earnings, finds that it has averaged for the ten years 12 per cent. on its investment, and that it has earned in that period, in the aggregate, the enormous sum of \$1,100,000,000.

Interpretation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law again played an important part last month in the making of financial history. Upon another big industrial combination—the E. I. du Pont de Nemours Powder Company, which in one form or another had been in existence since 1802—the heavy hand of the courts was laid with the result that, like the Standard Oil and American Tobacco companies, it will have to dissolve its present organization and reconstruct itself so as to be "in harmony with the law." Within a week of that decision came another which gave to one of the chief railroad "mergers," that of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific companies, a "clean bill of health." Both decrees issued from lower tribunals, and it is possible that the cases may yet have to be reviewed by the United States Supreme Court. Still, it is pretty generally accepted that the "rule of reason" upon which the final judgments in the two earlier cases were based, has been pretty closely followed in the more recent decisions. It does not yet appear certain that the losing parties to the suits—the Powder Company in the one case, the Government in the other—will appeal to the Supreme Court. In its essential details the Powder Trust suit did not differ materially from those of the Standard Oil and American Tobacco suits. In the judgment of the circuit court it was sufficiently well proven that the company had illegally gained a monopoly in the manufacture of various kinds of powder and that this monopoly constituted undue and unreasonable restraint of trade and commerce within the meaning of the Sherman law. The court's decision, which provided for the dissolution of the company, was tempered by a regard for the interests of investors in the company's securities. Judge Lanning very

A "Good" and
a "Bad"
Trust

significantly pointed out that "to stop the business of the combination immediately might be attended with very disastrous consequences." The company is granted the opportunity of presenting on October 16 next further testimony for use in the framing of the final decree. The reorganization problem of the Powder Company has many factors in common with that of the Tobacco Company. Chief among these is the one relating to its $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. "debenture" bonds, of which nearly \$15,000,000 are outstanding in the hands of investors out of a total authorized issue of \$16,000,000. It is not improbable that the company may be guided in its treatment of the bonds by the action which the Tobacco Company takes on its \$101,000,000 of "debentures." On the other hand, the Powder bonds situation is somewhat more simplified by reason of the fact that the "indenture" under which the securities are issued provides for their retirement at the company's option at 110 per cent. and interest on any interest date.

*Victory for the
Harriman
Roads*

That the Government should have lost on every one of its contentions in the suit by which it sought to have declared illegal the combination of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific railroad companies has been held to be a victory for the policy which Mr. Harriman pursued in building up the wonderful system of roads bearing his name. The motive which actuated Mr. Harriman in bringing about the combination in 1901 was to obtain for the Union Pacific, which was "bottled up" on its western terminus at Ogden, Utah, a line to the Pacific coast. The Central Pacific formed the natural connection for it, but this road was owned by the Southern Pacific and could not be secured separately. The only alternative was to get control of the "parent company" itself. This was accomplished by the purchase of the majority of Southern Pacific stock. In the Government's suit, which was filed in February, 1908, the main contention was that prior to 1901, Union Pacific, extending from Omaha and Kansas City on the east to Ogden on the west, was a competitor of the Southern Pacific, extending from New York on the east over the sea to New Orleans and thence by rail to San Francisco and Portland on the west. It was argued that after the purchase by the Union Pacific of Southern Pacific control, the competition before existing was restrained to the detriment of public interest; therefore, that the combination was repug-

nant to the Anti-Trust law and should be dissolved. The court's conclusion is that considering all the facts "in their natural, reasonable and practical aspect," the existence of substantial competition between the two companies prior to the combination cannot be established. It is this conclusion, together with the manner in which the court accepts the proof that there has been no discrimination in rates, that the railroad properties have been abundantly maintained, and that there are no grounds for complaint on the part of shippers of inferior or inadequate service on either of the lines, that the Harriman policy seems to have been vindicated.

*Average
Crops
Assured*

After fearful heat and continuing drought in late June and early July, there came more favorable weather for the crops, and in the latter part of the midsummer month it was possible to predict with some security what the harvests of 1911 will bring. The largest cotton yield in the history of the country, a good corn crop, though not so large as last year's, nearly an average crop of wheat, a poor crop of barley and very bad failures in oats and hay, seem certain. The *Wall Street Journal* of July 19 computes the aggregate value for 1911 of the six leading crops at \$4,318,000,000 as against \$4,509,000,000 actually produced in 1910. This falling off of 4.24 per cent. cannot be called a "crop failure." The dignity of such a term is supposed to be earned by a decrease of 15 to 20 per cent. from the average of several preceding years, so that, as far as the crops are concerned, there is no reason to expect business depression during the coming year. The South, with her enormous cotton crop, and a world demand for it, should continue its splendid industrial progress; the Northwest, with the exception of South Dakota, has a good wheat crop. The Middle West and the Southwestern States are in fair condition to stand a year of "spotty" agricultural returns. To the north of us, Canada is harvesting the largest wheat crop in her history. The three great wheat growing provinces expect to show a total return of 200,000,000 bushels.

*Repelling
a Cholera
Invasion*

The renewed outbreak of Asiatic cholera in Italy during the spring months has caused the entire public health machinery of the United States Government to be put in motion to prevent the entrance of the disease at our ports. The cities of Palermo, Naples, and Venice are in-



Photograph from the *World*, New York

MAYOR GAYNOR AND DR. A. H. DOTY ON THEIR WAY TO HOFFMAN ISLAND, ONE OF THE NEW YORK QUARANTINE STATIONS

fect, as well as many districts of Sicily and continental Italy. Isolated cases have been reported at Marseilles. Although vessels arriving from Italy have been carefully inspected in New York Harbor, the disease, in several instances, broke through quarantine, and several deaths have already occurred in New York State. Health Officer Doty, of the port of New York, states that a majority

as doing well. Dr. Doty has held for many years his present post as health sentinel for the whole country and retains to a remarkable degree the confidence of the medical profession. The United States Marine Hospital Service is coöperating with the New York authorities, believing that the situation is one that demands special vigilance. Two of the experts of the service are stationed with Dr. Doty.



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QUARANTINE STATION AT HOFFMAN ISLAND, NEW YORK HARBOR

of the vessels which have recently come from Italy have either brought actual cases of cholera, or have furnished evidence of its having occurred in passage. Every possible precaution has been taken both by Dr. Doty and the public health experts at Washington, and these precautions have been made still more effective by the enforcement of a five days' detention period at all Italian ports of embarkation. In spite of the occurrence of deaths from the disease within the borders of New York State, there has been no indication of anything approaching a panic, such as took place on former occasions when there was even less ground for alarm. Public confidence in the health officers who are controlling the situation at the port of New York has manifested itself in many ways. On July 19 Mayor Gaynor spent an afternoon inspecting the quarantine stations, in company with Dr. Doty and other health authorities. The cholera patients detained at the stations were reported

*The New
Commissioner
of Education*

Dr. P. P. Claxton, of the University of Tennessee, has been appointed United States Commissioner of Education to succeed Dr. Elmer E. Brown, who recently resigned to become chancellor of New York University. The appointment of Dr. Claxton is a peculiarly appropriate one. He comes from a part of the country where great efforts are being made to develop and energize the public school system, and he himself has had a most important part in these efforts. A graduate of the University of Tennessee and of Johns Hopkins, Dr. Claxton studied education in Germany and Sweden and visited the schools of other European countries before returning to the United States to take a position of leadership in the movement for public education in the South. His work at first was in North Carolina, but for the past nine years he has been closely associated with the school system of Tennessee, exerting marked influence as head of the Summer School of the South at Knoxville and as a member of the Southern Education Board. During the past two years he has been chairman of the Southern Board's campaign committee, and so great was his success, in former years, in "promotional" work for the schools of his State that his services have been much in demand in recent educational campaigns conducted in the Middle West and the East. Already he is one of the great educational leaders of the United States; and his exceptional career thus far promises much for the future.

*Building
Better
Roads*

The comparatively barren record of the New York Legislature in a session prolonged into midsummer was in striking contrast with the activities of other lawmaking bodies that have met during the year. The State administration (Democratic for the first time in seventeen years) has been entrusted with the control of large appropriations for public works. The barge canal is nearing completion at a cost of \$102,000,000, while the State's \$50,000,000 road-building project, under the direction of a Superintendent of Highways, the Hon. William H. Catlin, is by far the greatest enterprise of the kind in which any State government is engaged. Governor Dix is committed to the general policy of building market roads and feeders to bring farm produce closer to the consumer, rather than the construction of boulevards for mere pleasure-seekers. An apparent exception in favor of the motor-car tourist was made when the legislature passed, and the Governor approved,



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DR. P. P. CLAXTON
(The new Commissioner of Education)

a bill providing for the construction of an international highway as far as Rouse's Point on the Canadian border, while the Dominion Parliament at once appropriated funds for the extension of the road from that point to Montreal. The pervasiveness of the "Good Roads" movement in this country is well illustrated by Miss Laut's article on "New Scenic Highways in the Southwest," on page 193 of this REVIEW. The motor-car has become quite as familiar an object in Colorado as on the streets of New York City.

*Wisconsin's
New
Laws*

The Wisconsin Legislature closed a six-months' session early in July with a noteworthy record for progressive law-making. Besides a rigid corrupt practices act requiring publication of campaign expense statements, both before and after elections, and a new provision for primary elections, by which voters may register their second choice for a given office in order that there may be a majority nomination, the Legislature committed itself to the primary, the initiative, the referendum and the recall, and to woman suffrage. These constitutional changes are, of course, subject to ratification by the people. Among the new enactments, none has attracted more

attention, outside the State, than the income-tax law; in which Wisconsin is the pioneer, pending the adoption of the constitutional amendment which will permit the federal taxation of income. The Wisconsin law requires all persons who receive incomes of over \$500 a year to make returns to the tax assessor. A tax of at least 1 per cent. is placed upon all incomes above \$800, in the case of unmarried persons, and above \$1200, in the case of married persons. This tax is increased one-fourth of 1 per cent. on each additional \$1000 of income until \$12,000 is reached, when the tax is 5½ per cent. Above \$12,000 the tax is 6 per cent. There is an additional exemption of \$200 for each dependent person. Corporations will be allowed exemptions on sums paid for salaries and wages, if they will return to the assessor the amounts of such salaries and the names of those receiving them. United States officials are exempt, so far as their salaries are concerned, as are pensioners and members of the State Legislature. Other important results of the session are a workmen's compensation act and a law limiting the working

hours of women to ten in the daytime and eight at night. This is a distinct advance.

Alaska's Needs

The so-called Cunningham coal claims in Alaska, the patenting of which was so strenuously opposed by Mr. Pinchot, on the ground that such action would open the way for monopolization of the valuable Alaskan coal fields as against the public interest, have now been declared invalid and ordered canceled. This decision was reached by Commissioner Dennett, of the General Land Office, and was approved by Secretary of the Interior Fisher. The ultimate effect of the decision must be to stimulate the development of the Territory. Now that those who planned to appropriate Alaska's natural resources have been driven out of court, Congress should be prompt to enact such laws as will keep the title to those resources in the possession of the people, but will permit private persons and corporations to begin mining operations. Alaska is greatly in need of such changes in Territorial organization and in statute law as will permit a freer exploitation of her resources.



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UNION VETERANS RECALLING BULL RUN BATTLE SCENES ON THE FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY,
JULY 21, 1911

(Photograph taken on the battlefield during the reunion of Blue and Gray)



Photograph by the International News Service, New York

HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS, EDWARD ALBERT, PRINCE OF WALES, WHO WAS "INVESTED" AT CARNARVON LAST MONTH

*"Investing"
a Prince
of Wales* The impressive ceremonies attending the coronation of King George and Queen Mary in Westminster Abbey on June 22, which we described in these pages last month, were followed by other spectacular events in the

coronation season. The two sovereigns were present at a naval review at Portsmouth, in which a larger number of warships participated than ever gathered together in time of peace in any one harbor in the history of the world. Other exercises of much popular appeal were followed by a trip by their majesties to Ireland and Scotland, in both of which sections of the United Kingdom they were received with loyalty and enthusiasm. On July 13 there occurred, perhaps, the most picturesque ceremony connected with the whole coronation celebration. This was the investiture of the Prince of Wales at Carnarvon, the ancient historic capital of Wales. In Carnarvon Castle, built by the early Plantagenet kings, Edward Albert, Duke of Cornwall, heir apparent to the throne, a wholesome, popular lad of seventeen, took the oath of fealty to his father, and was formally created Prince of Wales. There is a tradition that the first Prince of Wales, Edward, the son of King Edward I, was born in Carnarvon. There is also the interesting modern fact that this district is represented in Parliament by that doughty and immensely popular Welshman, now Chancellor of the Exchequer, David Lloyd-George. Englishmen like these ceremonies, even though they have no modern significance. On this occasion, the present head of the British Treasury is reported to have remarked,—although not for publication,—that it was a very pretty sight, and could do no possible harm.



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THE BRITISH COLONIAL PREMIERS AND OTHER DELEGATES TO THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE
(Seated, from left to right: Sir Edward Morris, Newfoundland; Sir Joseph Ward, New Zealand; Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Canada; Hon. Lewis Vernon Harcourt, Secretary for the Colonies; Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, Premier of Great Britain; Hon. Andrew Fisher, Australia; Hon. Louis Botha, South Africa)

*The Veto
Bill and
the Lords*

The truce tacitly agreed upon between the government of Mr. Asquith and the leaders of the House of Lords, in the matter of the veto bill, came to an end in the middle of last month, at the close of the coronation festivities. After a good deal of debate, most of which was not made public, the Peers rejected all the proposed amendments to the Parliamentary measure proposed by the members who advocated compromise, and the bill was reported from committee on July 13. It was passed at its second reading, and then amended in accordance with the views of Lord Lansdowne and Lord Cromer, supported by a four-to-one majority of the Peers, to this general effect: When any bill—financial or other—is declared by a joint committee of fourteen persons, nominated in equal proportions by the Speaker of the House and the Lord Chancellor, to contain any provisions which bring it within the category of general legislation, it is to be taken out of the authority of Parliament, and referred to the voters of the entire country for decision.

*The
Government
Firm*

As was expected, the bill, thus amended, was passed by the Peers, without division, on July 20, and the measure at once sent back to the Commons. It was a foregone conclusion that the Lower House would reject the Lords' amendments and repass the original bill. The Peers would then have one more chance to accept the government measure. If not, Mr. Asquith announced that he expected to advise the King to create a sufficient number of new Peers to render certain the passage, in the Upper House, of the government measure for the reform of the Lords. The uncompromising attitude of the ministry is set forth succinctly in the words of Dr. MacNamara, Secretary to the Admiralty, who very often speaks for the government. Speaking to a London audience, on July 18, he said of the parliamentary situation at that time:

It is quite true that their noble lordships have been graciously pleased to fall upon the bill. A little wild prancing need not be denied them, and it need not disturb us. We view the situation with the utmost equanimity. The chart has been clearly and definitely marked and doubly underlined by two elections last year. We shall hold the ship resolutely on her course until she is, as she soon will be, safe at her harbor moorings. What will happen then? Nothing very terrible or revolutionary; simply the course of natural, healthy, democratic development will have moved forward wisely and cautiously, and with steps instinct with the British genius for hastening slowly.

*France Has
Another New
Ministry*

France has had four ministerial crises in nine months. The latest one took place on June 23. Premier Monis found it impossible to direct the ministry from the bed upon which he lay as the result of the aeroplane accident, which, on May 21, killed War Minister Berteaux, and seriously injured the Premier. The real reason for the fall of the Monis ministry was the impossibility of securing a Republican majority among the deputies. Out of the total number of 594 members of the Chamber, 341 are firmly committed to a change in the French electoral system. These 341, however, represent all possible shades of political opinion: Clericals, Royalists, Imperialist Reactionaries, Republicans, Radicals and Socialists. Furthermore, there has been wide popular dissatisfaction with the way the Monis government has handled the champagne riots in Provence, and with its military operations in Morocco. Just before his official visit to Holland (the first made by the head of the French nation for nearly a hundred years), President Fallières accepted the resignation of the Monis cabinet, and summoned M. Joseph Caillaux, former Minister of Finance, to arrange a new cabinet. M. Caillaux finally accepted, himself taking the portfolio of the interior, as well as the premiership. The only important change in the new cabinet is the choice of Justin de Selves as Minister of Foreign Affairs. De Selves is a comparatively unknown man. His conciliatory attitude toward Germany is taken to indicate that he was chosen as a check upon M. Delcassé, who, though Minister of Marine, had already proven himself the dominating force of the Monis cabinet, particularly in foreign affairs. It is believed that M. Caillaux, who is an ambitious man, will endeavor to win popular approval by securing the final passage of his much-discussed income tax bill, which has been held up by the Senate for nearly two years. The new premier promises electoral reform, increased state control of railroads, the suppression of sabotage, and the extension of the state pension system.

*Germany Upsets
the Algeiras
Convention*

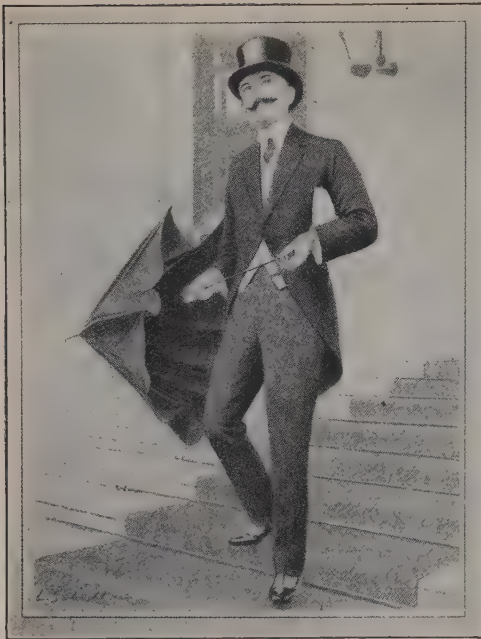
The agreement reached by the great powers of Europe at the Conference of Algeiras in 1906 for the settlement of all disputed matters in Morocco was to continue for five years. That period expires on the last day of 1911. It was the protest of Germany against the Anglo-French Convention of 1904 regarding Morocco, which brought about the Algeiras



Photograph by Sir Benjamin Stone

KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY LISTENING TO THE CORONATION SERMON IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY

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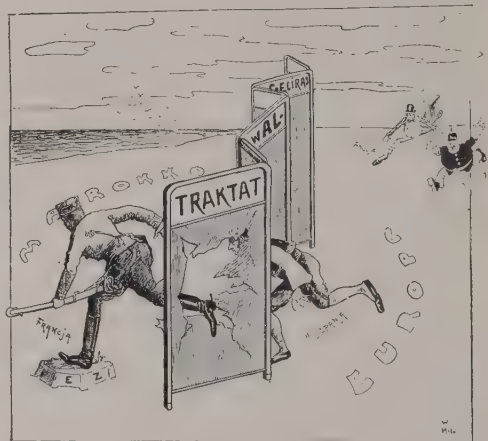
JOSEPH CAILLAUX, THE WELL-DRESSED PREMIER OF FRANCE

(This character sketch by L. Sabattier, artist of the *Illustrated London News*, made with no intent to caricature, is claimed to be an excellent portrait of the new Premier of France, who boasts that he can set the fashion for Paris and at the same time handle the Moroccan situation. He has been called the Lloyd-George of France on account of his efforts toward financial reform)

Conference. Again it is Germany, which, by a bold move, proclaims to the world her dissatisfaction with the workings of the present agreement, and indicates her intention of having a better share in any understanding that may be reached to supplement the Algeiras convention. On the first day of last month, the German Foreign Office made an announcement that startled the world. On account of the fear of German merchants in southern Morocco, said the statement, that the present disorders among the tribesmen would spread, the German warship *Panther* had been ordered to Agadir, a port on the Atlantic coast of Morocco. The principal powers which agreed at Algeiras (France, Great Britain, Spain and Russia) as well as Morocco, were informed that the appearance of the warship had no unfriendly significance. Its presence at Agadir, moreover, was to be only temporary.

France and England Aroused
As was to be expected, this move on the part of Germany aroused French sensibilities to a high pitch, and caused a good deal of popular discussion in Great Britain as well. The

continental stock markets became excited and war was freely discussed. President Fallières, at the time the announcement was made, was on an official visit to the Netherlands. Premier Caillaux, who had only a few days before succeeded M. Monis, at once opened diplomatic correspondence with Herr von Schoen, the German Ambassador at Paris, and M. de Selves, the new French Minister of Foreign Affairs, instructed M. Cambon, the French Ambassador at Berlin, to declare to the German Government that France could not conceal her surprise and regret at the action of Germany. Without exaggerating the gravity of affairs, the Foreign Minister instructed Ambassador Cambon to point out that the manner chosen by the imperial German Government to manifest its anxiety for German interests in Morocco was likely to seem very strange to French opinion. Particularly, in view of the fact that a new ministry was then taking office in France, and the President had departed on a foreign tour, this action by Germany, "while certainly not of a nature to create a grave situation, is, nevertheless, hardly in conformity with the intention of the two powers [France and Germany] as enunciated in the agreement of 1909, to treat each other with mutual cordiality." The French press remained calm, but, without exception, urged the government to hold the situation with a firm hand. Intense public interest was manifested in England. Replying to a question by Mr. Balfour, in the House of Commons, in regard to Morocco and the attitude the British Government intended



BREAKING THROUGH THE ALGECIRAS CONFERENCE WALL

(If France and Spain can plunge through the flimsy screen set up between Europe and Morocco by the Algeiras Conference, why may not Germany and Britain?)

From Mucha (Warsaw)



MOROCCO, SHOWING HOW ITS PARTITION BY EUROPE HAS ALREADY BEGUN

to take in view of the Anglo-French understanding, Premier Asquith said, on July 6:

I can say little at this stage, but wish it to be clearly understood that the government considers that a new situation has arisen in Morocco in which it is possible that future developments may affect British interests more directly than has hitherto been the case. We are confident that the diplomatic discussion will find a solution, and in the part which we will take in it we shall have due regard for the protection of those interests and the fulfilment of our treaty obligations to France.

This statement of Mr. Asquith was taken to indicate that, in view of her interests in Morocco, Britain intended to stand by France. In Madrid, on the other hand, the news of Germany's action has apparently been favorably received, if we may judge by the general tone of the editorials in the Spanish press. Spain, says the semi-official *Diario Universal* of Madrid, views Germany's action with satisfaction, "not because the entrance of a third party into the question will lighten Spain's diplomatic horizon, but because the German demonstration emphasizes the duty of the powers to do

something at once in defense of their interests and subjects in Morocco." Official pour-parlers were at once begun between the French and German governments, and were being conducted in secret last month, with no official statement other than that everything was proceeding on a friendly footing. It is intimated that France has been asking Germany to say what she wants, and Germany has been replying that she is open to receive any French offer. By the middle of last month, the German gunboat *Panther*, at Agadir, had been replaced by a first-class cruiser. Later a French warship was also ordered to that port. It is further intimated, in the dispatches, that neither in Paris nor Berlin is there any desire or intention to bring about another Algeiras conference, but that "very soon" France, Germany, Great Britain, Spain and Russia will begin a series of "conversations" with a view to "settling definitely the status of the Arab empire, which, standing at the gateway of Europe, has been constantly regarded as a possible cause of international difficulties." Morocco has long been a thorn in the flesh to Europe.

France and England vs. Spain and Germany

*A Bit
of
History*

In order to understand the complicated Moroccan situation, it is necessary to go back a few years and recall a little history. In April, 1904, the governments of France and Great Britain came to a general agreement with regard to their possessions and spheres of influence in Africa. By this agreement, later to be known as the Anglo-French *Entente Cordiale*, the two countries divided their colonial empires on the dark continent by well-defined lines. France agreed that Egypt was of purely British concern. England announced that, as far as she was concerned, Morocco was henceforth French. To France was conceded the right to "assist," to any extent she saw fit, in the administrative, economic, financial and military reforms in Morocco. It was expected that the republic would come to an understanding with Morocco and Spain in the carrying out of these reforms. This she did, and the situation was accepted by the government at Madrid in a Franco-Spanish convention made a few months later. Almost immediately afterwards, it will be remembered, the German Government expressed dissatisfaction with this arrangement, the Kaiser made a sensational visit to Tangiers, and France and Germany were on the brink of war. Then German pressure having been brought to bear on the French ministry, M. Delcassé, then foreign minister, was forced to resign, and Europe decided to have a general conference over Morocco.

*The
Algeiras
Conference*

The nations came together a few months later (in January, 1906) in a conference of 13 delegates, representing Morocco, the European powers interested, and the United States, at Algeiras, a small town in southeastern Spain, for the settlement of all the matters in dispute. The United States participated in this conference only with the understanding that it had no concern in Morocco as a political problem, but was solely desirous of conserving American commercial interests in that country. The British representatives at Algeiras took the point of view, that Morocco was a French problem, and steadily maintained it. They supported French interests consistently. On April 7 an agreement embodying a settlement of the entire question was signed by all the delegates, approved by the Sultan of Morocco on June 18, and the ratifications by all the other powers deposited at Madrid on December 31, 1906. This agreement, which was to last for five years, provided for a Moorish police force, commanded by Moors,

assisted by French and Spanish instructors and officers, and inspected by a Swiss Inspector-General. A state bank was established, with censors appointed by the German, British, Spanish and French "State" banks, and the general question of taxes was settled. The situation was further clarified by a separate agreement defining their respective interests, made public by the governments of France and Germany, on February 9, 1909, each promising that "they will neither pursue nor encourage any measure of a nature to create, in their favor, or in the favor of any other power, an exclusive economic privilege."

*Later
Develop-
ments*

Later in the same year, an attack upon railroad workers near Tangier resulted in the death of five Spanish subjects. The government at Madrid sent a large force into Morocco, and severe fighting ensued. In the end the Spanish were victorious, and occupied a considerable tract of land south of Tangier. After protracted negotiations a convention was signed in November, 1909, in accordance with the terms of which a Spanish and a Moorish high commissioner were invested with power to govern the district acquired by Spain, assisted by the Moorish police force under Spanish officers. Spain further agreed to aid in developing the country, and the Sultan promised not to erect any fortifications near Ceuta, and to pay a large war indemnity. This Spanish expedition was very unpopular at home, and resulted in riots throughout the country, terminating, it will be remembered, in the disturbed state of affairs which culminated in the execution of the alleged anarchist, Francisco Ferrer, on October 13, 1909. Meanwhile, there had been civil war in Morocco, and Mulai-Abd-el-Hafid had revolted against his brother, Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz, and had been proclaimed Sultan in 1907. Two years later he was recognized by the powers upon his undertaking to recognize the convention of Algeiras and to abide by all the treaties and engagements made by his predecessors.

*The
French
Enter Fez*

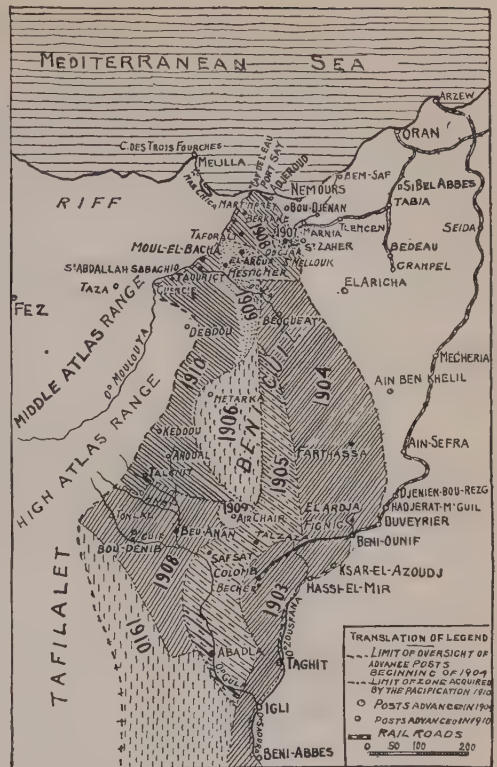
This, with frequent but unimportant incursions into the European zone at the coast, was the situation in Morocco until the first of April, when Sultan Mulai Hafid, who had a large rebellion on his hands, asked the French Government to rescue him at Fez, his capital, where he was besieged by the rebels. A flying column of native troops, officered by Frenchmen and under command of Colonel Bullard, left the coast, and proceeded almost to the gates of

the capital. There a halt was made until General Moinier, commander of the French troops in Algeria, had come up. Then the French relieving force took possession of Fez, the first time a European army had entered the gates of this Moorish city. Protests at once came from the German and Spanish governments that this was in violation of the Algeciras agreement. The firmness and steadiness with which the government at Paris persisted in its course excited much discussion particularly in the German press. The Berlin Foreign Office expressed itself openly as not being satisfied with the French explanation and the ordering of a warship to Agadir is regarded as a sharp demand for some satisfactory reply from Paris. Meanwhile the situation has been further complicated by the action of Spain in sending a force into northwestern Morocco, which occupied the important cities of Larache and Alcazar. Against this occupation France has protested. So we have Europe divided up into opposing camps over the fate of the Moorish empire in northwest Africa. England supports France, and there are reports of active Russian friendliness toward the republic. On the other hand, Italy and Austro-Hungary take the side of Germany, and, if we read the Spanish press correctly, the government at Madrid is rather pleased at the German coup in sending a warship to Agadir harbor.



FRANCE'S NATIVE TROOPS MARCHING TO THE RELIEF OF FEZ

(The relief column, led by General Moinier, arrived at Fez on May 21 without encountering any serious resistance, and found all the Europeans in the Moroccan capital safe and well)



FRANCE'S PACIFIC PENETRATION IN MOROCCO AT WORK

(The shaded portions, with the dates, indicate the advance westward made by the French outposts from Algeria since 1904)

Morocco has been earmarked for France for two generations. Until the German Kaiser actively objected, the Moorish empire was apparently destined to succumb, in due time, to the policy of "peaceful penetration" which the French Republic has so successfully carried on in Algeria, Tunis, and that vast region which, in the old atlases, we used to see marked as the Desert of Sahara. With Spain apparently unambitious and content with what she already held on the Moroccan coast, and England agreeing to give the French a free hand, there seemed to be no impediment to French expansion over northern Africa. And the republic has diligently improved her opportunity. The story of French success in exploration, administration, and all the achievements of civilization in the dark continent during the past generation is a wonderful one. We have alluded to it, at various times, in these pages. The accompanying map shows the policy of "pacific penetration" at work; the shaded portions indicate the various stages of French advance from the Algerian border into Morocco.

*its
Remarkable
Achievements*

All the resources of science and the most modern ideas of the government of "backward" peoples have been employed by France, and her success is all the more surprising when we remember that it is due to governmental action, and not to the initiative of individuals, or to the natural expansion of population, as in the case in England. French territory in Africa is now almost ten times the area of the republic itself, and its population so great that every third French subject is now an African. Gradually the French lines have been drawing closer about Morocco. The Moorish Sultan's empire has no boundary on the south except the Sahara, and the Sahara is French. West and southwest of the Sahara the tribes of the Senegal and its hinterland have been welded into a French protectorate, under the name of Mauretania, the classic name of Morocco. For a half century the elastic frontier of Algeria has been pushed westward until, a decade ago, it was overstepped. The map shows the westward march of the Frenchman. A conspicuous triumph of the French policy in Morocco was recorded only a few days after the announcement that a German warship had entered the port of Agadir. On the national holiday of France, July 14, Sultan Mulai Hafid sent from Fez, to his representative in Paris, the first wireless telegraph message, directing him to con-

gratulate the President of France upon the opening of telegraph communication between Morocco and France.

*What May be
Done
with Agadir*

Agadir, known also as Santa Cruz, is a small seaport on the Atlantic coast of Morocco. Why does the Kaiser want it? For two reasons. In the first place, Germany came, last of all the colonizing powers, and found that all the uncivilized lands of the world had been staked out by her rivals. She succeeded in picking out a few comparatively unimportant pieces of land in Africa, seized a port of China, and successfully managed a scheme for a dominating interest in Asiatic Turkey, by means of skilful diplomacy at Constantinople, but chiefly through securing control of the much-discussed Bagdad Railway. The Kaiser realizes—in fact, he has openly admitted—that France will ultimately get the larger portion of the best provinces of Morocco. In the general liquidation of the Moorish Sultan's domain, however, Germans hope to obtain "compensating advantages." Agadir is an excellent point to develop the Kaiser's daring scheme to get the lion's share of South American trade. It is within easy reach of Brazil, and, moreover, it commands the British ocean routes to South Africa, India, and Australia. This latter fact explains the British interest. Agadir might be transformed into a naval station of much strength.

*Resentment
Against German
Methods*

Some of the European journals affect to see danger to the United States, as well as Great Britain, in the establishment of a German naval station on the Atlantic coast of Morocco, maintaining that, once in possession of such a post, Germany will reap a good deal of the strategic advantages of the Panama Canal. The incident is apparently a further illustration of the opportunist policy of the Kaiser, which has been summed up by one French observer as: "Never miss a good opportunity for making the rest of the powers feel that nothing can be settled without Germany being first consulted, but let the Fatherland assert itself at the moment when such assertion will be most likely to produce results without producing war." The cynical chancelleries of Europe are expecting the Germans to remain at Agadir until it is made worth their while to leave. This means that the Moroccan question has now descended to the bargain-counter stage. The French press is bitterly characterizing the German method of conducting international business as savoring rather of,



REVIVING THE BISMARCKIAN POLICY OF THE
MAILED FIST

(Herr von Kiderlen-Wächter, the German Foreign Minister, outlining his African policy)
From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

blackmail than of diplomacy. Not a few of the journals of Berlin accept the challenge, and openly rejoice in the way in which Herr von Kiderlen-Wächter, the Foreign Minister, is reviving the Bismarckian methods of the "mailed fist."

*The
Complications
of an Austrian
Election*

As a result of the general elections in Austria, held on June 13 and 20, the government was defeated by the so-called Christian Socialists, and the premier, Baron Richard von Bienenrth, resigned on June 26. Elections for the Austrian Reichsrath are long and generally complicated proceedings, owing to the radical differences of language and political opinion in Francis Joseph's polyglot empire. In this election for the 516 constituencies, there were 2987 candidates, or nearly six for each seat to be filled, representing fifty-one parties or factions. Second ballots had to be taken in nearly two-thirds of the constituencies, causing great delay in announcing the result. It was nearly a week after the second balloting before the premier knew definitely that he would not have sufficient backing to carry on the government. Upon Baron von Bienenrth's resignation, Emperor Francis Joseph requested Baron Gautsch von Frankenthurm to form a new ministry. The new premier is of the same general political faith as his predecessor. He will probably have as much difficulty in keeping parliamentary government running smoothly. When the Reichsrath began its regular sessions, on July 18, the aged Francis Joseph, who will be eighty-one years old on the eighteenth of the present month, himself read his speech from the throne, showing no trace of his recent illness. He emphasized the necessity for an immediate reorganization of the army, and earnestly exhorted the members to do their best to put an end to factional strife.

*Problems
of the
Near East*

It has been said by more than one keen observer of Oriental politics that there are three great problems, which, in their gradual development, are likely to determine the character of the relations between Europe and Asia in the present century. The first, which will, to a certain extent, indicate the moral attitude of Europe toward the East, is the course which will be shaped by Great Britain in her control of India. The second is the future of China, and the third that of the so-called Middle or Near East, which begins with Persia, and travels westward to the Adriatic Sea, with Russia on the north and Egypt on

the south. The third of these problems have been figuring in the news very prominently recently. Despite the undoubted advance made by the Young Turk administration at Constantinople, and the many claims made for its achievements, there is undoubtedly a great deal yet to be desired in the way Turkey is handling her subject populations. In this fact may be found the causes of possible grave European complications. On another page this month (239) we present some facts and figures showing what a German writer is pleased to call the "Revival of the Crescent." The German policy toward the Middle East, with its immediate projects and ultimate aims, is set forth enthusiastically by this German writer. A rapid sketch of Ottoman politics is also given, with reference to the Albanian and Macedonian difficulties, the Sultan's recent visit to these disturbed centers, and some comment by Turkish and Bulgarian journals on Parliamentaryism as it manifests itself in the empire of the Turk.

*"Turkifying"
All
Moslems*

The Young Turks are undoubtedly conducting the administration of their country with vigor and a certain skill. The outside world, however, which has been watching the severe repressive measures adopted by the Turkish authorities in Albania, can scarcely be expected to sympathize with the nationalizing policy of Constantinople. More than one Young Turk statesman has reluctantly admitted that the political program of his party includes as one of its essential principles the "gradual Turkification" of all non-Turks and non-Moslem nationalities of the empire. This kind of policy, as Russia can well testify, always bears bitter fruit. The Albanian, the Armenian, the Kurd, the Greek and the Arab have always fought this idea, and the new régime at Constantinople is not finding it any easier to "Turkify" the empire than did Abdul Hamid. Unfortunately, furthermore, the various and multifarious political problems that complicate the Turkish situation do not concern Turkey alone. They involve international interests of considerable magnitude. It is believed in Western Europe that Germany and Austria are of one mind on the subject of Turkey, and that they will not permit any interference with the government at Constantinople so long as Teutonic commercial ambitions are being satisfied in the Sultan's Asiatic domain. In a few years, when the Austro-Hungarian naval program is completed, and the dual monarchy has a fleet comparable to that of Italy, the political



LORD KITCHENER, THE NEW BRITISH CONSUL-GENERAL TO EGYPT
(As he appeared on a recent visit to the United States)

experts are predicting that there will be an aggressive campaign on the part of the military monarchies of Central Europe, under the lead of the German Empire, for the absorption of Turkey, commercially if not politically.

*Egypt to
be Ruled
by Kitchener*

Several things which seem likely to happen in the near future may change the face of the situation. Russia is recovering, slowly but surely, from the eclipse which she underwent as a military power after her defeat by Japan. She is preparing troubles for the Turk by inflaming Montenegrin ambitions and inciting aid to the revolting Albanians. Last month Mohammed Ali Mirza, the exiled Shah of Persia, who, since his deposition two years ago, has been a prisoner in Russia, on a pension paid by the Russian Government, escaped,—with Russian connivance, it is believed,—and be-

gan a campaign for regaining his throne, a campaign, it should not be forgotten, which includes war against Turkey. At the same time that these events were happening in the North, important changes were taking place in Egypt. Early last month, Sir John Eldon Gorst, who had been British agent and Consul-General in Egypt since Lord Cromer's retirement in April, 1907, resigned because of ill health. A few days later he died in London. In his latest report upon Egyptian affairs, Sir Eldon acknowledged that the result of the present conciliatory policy in Egypt had not been satisfactory. Americans will not soon forget the vigorously worded criticism of Britain's easy-going policy in Egypt made two years ago by ex-President Roosevelt when on his trip through that country returning from his African hunting tour. It will be remembered that Boutros Pasha, the Prime Minister, had been murdered, and that Mr. Roosevelt criticized the English authorities for being lax in handling the nationalistic agitation. For some time there has been an increasing demand in England for the appointment of a "strong man" to Egypt. On July 14, it was announced that Lord Kitchener had been appointed to succeed Sir Eldon Gorst. At the present juncture, this appointment would seem to have a special significance, and the British Government must have had reason, very strong to itself, for making it. Undoubtedly the appointment will have a disquieting effect at Constantinople. A French newspaper intimates that it may have been made because of a veiled threat in one of the Berlin journals that a new conference over Morocco would also be made to cover Egypt.



TURKEY'S NON-SUCCESS IN ALBANIA—A POLISH VIEW

(The cartoonist of *Mucha*, Warsaw, here gives what may be taken as the Russian as well as the Polish view of Turkey's problem in Albania. Russia and Italy keep the top spinning. Turkey only gets her toe stubbed)



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WRECK OF THE FEDERAL EXPRESS AT BRIDGEPORT, JULY 11

*The Bridgeport
Railroad
Accident*

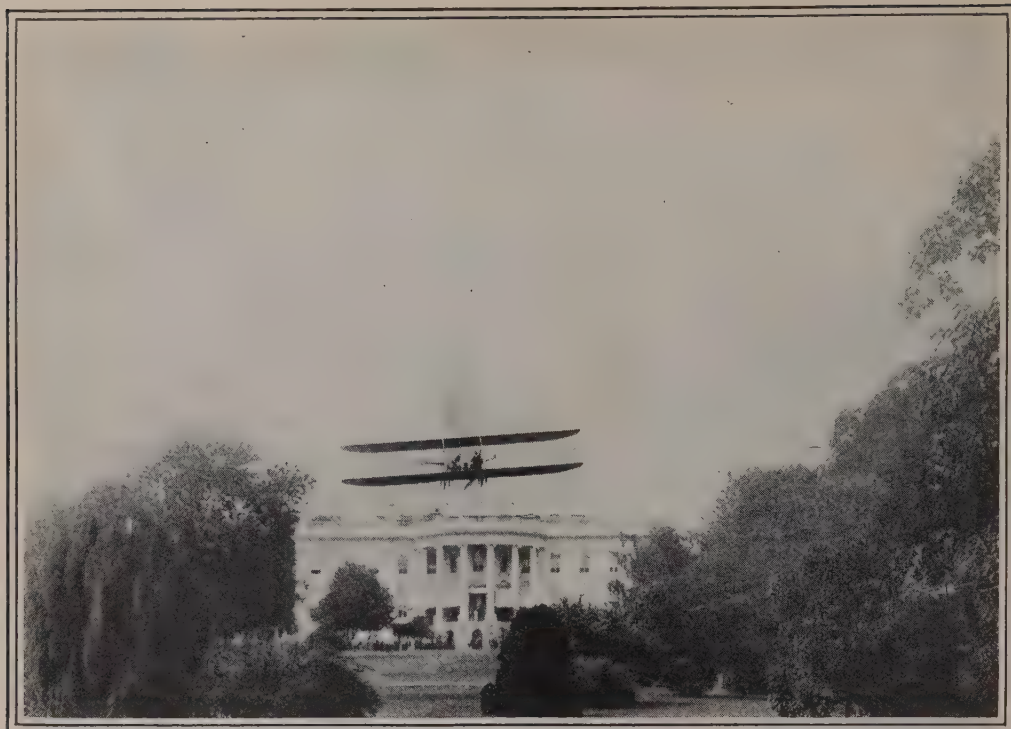
While running at high speed through the city of Bridgeport, Conn., on July 11, the Federal Express, which is the principal through train between Washington and Boston, jumped a "cross-over" switch and was thrown from a twenty-foot viaduct into a street. Fourteen

of the passengers were killed and many others were seriously injured. Among the killed was the engineer, who had apparently taken a chance in running at a speed of sixty miles an hour, where the rules of the road call for a speed of only fifteen miles, in order to make up time. The switch could not stand the strain



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ST. LOUIS BASEBALL TEAM—SURVIVORS OF THE BRIDGEPORT WRECK



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HENRY N. ATWOOD FLYING OVER THE WHITE HOUSE GROUNDS ON JULY 14

of such a speed, and the result was perhaps the most frightful accident in the history of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad. The steel construction of the five sleeping-cars that were derailed doubtless saved the lives of many passengers. Two Pullman cars at the rear end of the train did not leave the track. These cars were occupied by twenty-two young athletes, members of the St. Louis National League baseball team. These young men worked with a vim to help the injured passengers out of the wreck and won the gratitude of many.

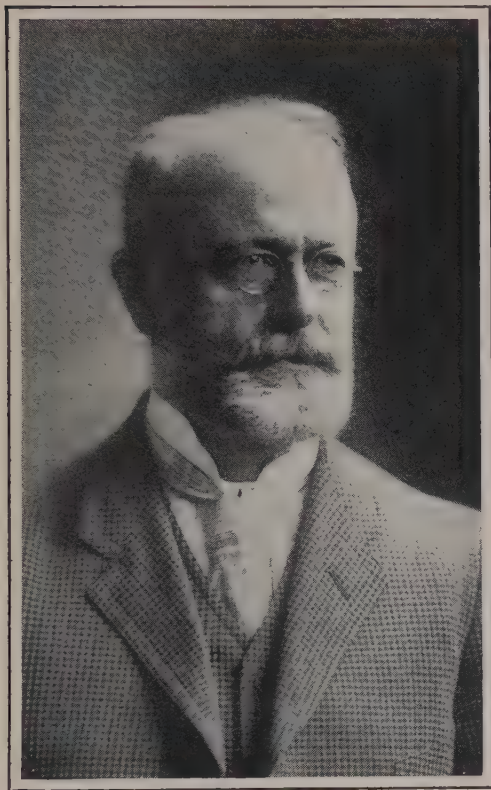
*Progress
in
Aviation*

Human flight has made rapid strides during the past twelve months, as is shown in the profusely illustrated article which we present to our readers this month, beginning on page 174. The longest cross-country flight yet made in this country was that of Henry N. Atwood, who attracted national attention last month by flying from Boston to Washington. The trip of 550 odd miles was covered by Atwood in several stages. He started from Boston on June 30, and flew to New London, where he took a sky view of the Yale-Harvard boat race on the Thames. Next day he proceeded to New York, circled over the skyscraper dis-

trict in the lower section of the city, paid a visit to the Statue of Liberty, and came to a landing on Governor's Island. On July 4 he left for Atlantic City, arriving there in good form. A number of difficulties were experienced in the last stage of the trip, but the young airman finally reached the capital and alighted on the White House lawn, where President Taft presented him with a medal from the Washington Aero Club. The *Daily Mail's* circuit-of-England-and-Scotland race will be in progress (July 22-August 5) when this REVIEW appears. A prize of \$50,000 awaits the aviator who finishes in the shortest time. Chicago is planning a great international flying meet for this month, to run from the 12th to the 20th, which will undoubtedly attract visitors from all over the country. Many of the world's famous flyers are scheduled to take part. A fine aviation field has been laid out at Grant Park, on the lake front, with accommodations for 50,000 spectators. Flying contests of all sorts are on the program, the prizes aggregating \$80,000. United States Government aviators will also participate, and President Taft is expected to be present. It is possible that some wonderful feats will be seen at this Chicago meet.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 19, 1911)



GEN. WILLIAM H. BIXBY

(Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., supervising the uncovering of the battleship *Maine* in Havana Harbor)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

June 21.—In the Senate, a combination of Democrats and "insurgent" Republicans directs the Finance Committee to report the Wool bill; Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) speaks in favor of the Canadian reciprocity agreement. . . . The House rejects the Senate amendment to the measure providing for the direct elections of Senators.

June 22.—In the Senate, the Wool and Farmers' Free List bills are reported adversely from the Finance Committee.

June 26.—The Senate, by a *viva voce* vote, rejects the Root amendment to the Reciprocity bill.

June 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) speaks in favor of his amendments to the Reciprocity bill, and Mr. Borah (Rep., Ida.) denounces the agreement itself.

July 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Burton (Rep., Ohio) advocates the passage of the Reciprocity bill, and Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) concludes his argument proposing the amendment of the measure. . . . The House sends to conference committee the resolution providing for the direct election of Senators.

July 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Works (Rep., Cal.), in a speech against the establishment of a department of public health, upholds the doctrines of Christian Science; Mr. Gronna (Rep., N. D.) speaks against the Reciprocity bill.

July 8-9.—The Senate rejects amendments to the Reciprocity bill proposed by Messrs. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) and Simmons (Dem., N. C.).

July 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Sutherland (Rep., Utah) opposes the approval of the Arizona constitution and criticizes the "Oregon idea."

July 12.—The Senate rejects the plan of Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) to add the Farmers' Free List bill as an amendment to the Reciprocity bill.

July 13.—In the Senate, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) begins a speech criticizing the administration and the Reciprocity bill.

July 14.—The Senate reaches an agreement to vote upon the Reciprocity bill on July 22 and then to take up the Wool, Farmers' Free List, and Reapportionment measures.

July 17.—The Senate passes a bill limiting campaign expenses in Congressional elections and primaries and providing for publicity of contributions.

July 19.—The Senate ratifies the treaty with Great Britain which provides for the arbitration of certain pecuniary claims.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

June 21.—President Taft asks Congress to amend the Food and Drug law in accordance with recent decisions of the Supreme Court. . . . Judge Lanning, of the United States Circuit Court at Wilmington, Del., orders the dissolution of the so-called Powder Trust. . . . The New York City Board of Estimate and Apportionment adopts the McAneny-Willcox subway report.

June 22.—The relations of the Mormon Church with the Sugar Trust are explained to the special investigating committee of the House by a former Mormon bishop.

June 24.—The United States Circuit Court at St. Louis declares that the merger of the Southern Pacific and Union Pacific railways was legal.

June 26.—The Commissioner of the Land Office declares invalid the so-called Cunningham claims, involving 5250 acres of coal lands in Alaska.

June 27.—The voters of Hoboken, N. J., reject the commission plan of government. . . . The Interborough Rapid Transit Company, of New York City, refuses the city's terms for the construction of new subways; the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company accepts them.

June 29.—President Taft sends a special message to the Senate urging the ratification of the treaties with Honduras and Nicaragua. . . . The President nominates six ministers to South and Central American countries. . . . P. P. Claxton is appointed Commissioner of Education. . . . The Wisconsin Senate passes the Assembly measure levying a tax upon incomes. . . . The special session of the Illinois Legislature adjourns without passing the deep-waterways measure for which they were



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 KING GEORGE WITH THE PROVOST OF TRINITY
 COLLEGE, DUBLIN

called. . . . A federal grand jury indicts eighty-three men connected with the steel-wire industry, charging them with conspiracy to restrain trade.

June 30.—The report of Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations, on the investigation of the United States Steel Corporation is made public. . . . The Treasury closes its fiscal year with a surplus of \$33,000,000.

July 1.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders an investigation of all express companies doing an interstate business. . . . The Connecticut House of Representatives passes a bill providing for one day's rest in seven for all employees. . . . In the Kentucky Democratic primary, Ollie James is nominated for United States Senator and James D. McCreary for Governor.

July 6.—The Attorney-General begins an action against the Lehigh Valley Railroad to separate the business of coal mining from railroading.

July 9.—The Postmaster-General announces an increase in the salary of rural carriers to compensate them for extra work in case Congress approves his recommendation for a parcels post.

July 11.—Governor Baldwin signs the Public Utilities bill passed by the Connecticut General Assembly.

July 12.—The Attorney-General recommends to the President that Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, head of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Department of Agriculture, be dismissed for alleged violation of

the law. . . . The New York Assembly endorses the proposed federal income tax, completing ratification by that State. . . . Governor Hoke Smith, of Georgia, is elected to the United States Senate by the General Assembly. . . . Judge E. C. O'Rear is nominated for Governor of Kentucky at the State Republican Convention.

July 13.—Secretary of War Stimson arrives at Colon to inspect the Panama Canal. . . . Governor Dix, of New York, signs the Levy bill amending the election law of the State. . . . Three revenue officials and twenty-one officers and employees of butterine manufacturers are arrested in Chicago charged with conspiracy to defraud the Government.

July 14.—The House Committee on Expenditures in the Department of Agriculture decides to investigate the charges against Dr. Wiley.

July 16.—The Postmaster-General designates post-offices at New York, Chicago, Boston, and St. Louis as postal savings banks.

July 17.—The Government begins a suit against the Philadelphia & Reading Railway to dissociate it from the coal companies which it controls.

July 18.—Jersey City, N. J., rejects the commission form of government.

July 19.—The New York Senate passes a bill relieving racing associations from responsibility for gambling at the tracks.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

June 21.—The Portuguese Constituent Assembly elects Anselmo Braamcamp first president of the republic. . . . Duez, former liquidator of French religious orders, is sentenced to twelve years penal servitude for embezzling public funds.

June 22.—King George V. and Queen Mary are crowned in Westminster Abbey amid scenes of impressive splendor, more than six thousand persons witnessing the ceremony.

June 23.—The Monis ministry in France, meeting a defeat in the Chamber of Deputies, decides to resign. . . . Rebel Arabs in Yemen surprise and rout a Turkish force, with 1000 killed.

June 26.—Joseph Caillaux is asked by President Fallières of France to form a ministry. . . . Premier Von Bierneth of Austria resigns following a defeat of the Christian Socialists in the general election.

June 27.—Jean Cruppi becomes Minister of Justice in the Caillaux cabinet in France, and Justin de Selves takes the portfolio of foreign affairs.

July 1.—Changes in the directorate of the Mexican National Railways are announced.

July 5.—The House of Lords passes Lord Lansdowne's amendment to the Government's Veto bill. . . . Martial law is established throughout Paraguay, President Jara assuming a dictatorship.

July 6.—The British House of Lords passes the second clause of the Veto bill as amended.

July 7.—King George and Queen Mary arrive at Kingstown Harbor on their first visit, as sovereigns, to Dublin.

July 11.—Debate upon the Moroccan question in the French Chamber is postponed *sine die* on the Government's motion.

July 13.—Edward, eldest son of King George, is invested as Prince of Wales at Carnarvon Castle, Wales.

July 18.—The revolution in Hayti is reported to be serious; an American gunboat is sent to protect

American interests. . . Mohammed Ali, the deposed Shah, lands in Persia in an attempt to regain the throne. . . Emperor Francis Joseph opens the Reichsrath at Vienna. . . Tory leaders in the British House of Lords decide to permit the Veto bill to pass as amended.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

June 21.—The German Emperor visits the American battleships at Kiel.

June 28.—It is announced at Washington that the Anglo-American arbitration treaty has been agreed upon in every important provision.

June 29.—At the request of the American embassy at St. Petersburg, Russia admits Jewish buyers to the fur trade at Tyumen.

July 1.—German troops are landed at Agadir, Morocco; much uneasiness prevails in France.

July 2.—The American consulate-general at Bogota is permanently closed. . . Claims aggregating \$250,000 are filed against Mexico for killing and wounding Americans at El Paso during the fighting around Juarez.

July 4.—Germany sends the cruiser *Berlin* to Agadir, Morocco, to replace the gunboat there.

July 5.—The United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy submit a note to Hayti insisting that claims of their respective citizens be settled within three months. . . Turkey begins military preparations in view of Montenegro's continued activity.

July 7.—A treaty abolishing pelagic sealing is signed at Washington by representatives of the United States, Great Britain, Russia, and Japan.

July 9.—The French ambassador at Berlin and the German Foreign Minister, after a conference on Morocco, issue an optimistic semi-official note.

July 10.—Russia informs Germany that she is in complete agreement with the French viewpoint in the Moroccan affair.

July 12.—France asks Spain to explain the arrest of two Frenchmen in Morocco.

July 14.—Great Britain and Japan sign a new treaty of alliance, to last ten years.

July 19.—The United States Government emphatically denies that another intervention in Cuba is contemplated. . . The Spanish ambassador at Paris expresses the regret of his government for the arrest of the French consul-general in Morocco.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

June 21.—The *Olympic*, the largest steamship in the world, arrives at New York on its first transatlantic trip.

June 23.—A severe storm causes heavy damage to shipping at Chilean ports.

June 24.—A boiler explosion on the *City of St. Joseph*, near Memphis, results in the death of seventeen persons.

June 25.—The Grand Prix de Paris is won by Marquis de Ganay's *As d'Atout*, Frank Gould's *Combours* being second.

June 27.—Dr. Hill, the retiring American ambassador, is the guest at a dinner given by the American Chamber of Commerce at Berlin. . . The Port Hood coal mines at Cape Breton are completely flooded with sea water.

June 29.—The Eucharistic Congress at Madrid closes with a brilliant procession through the



MR. HAROLD F. MCCORMICK, OF CHICAGO
(Active in the promotion of aviation and donor of Chicago's aviation field)

streets. . . Russia's first dreadnought, the *Sevastopol*, is launched at St. Petersburg.

June 30.—Cardinal Gibbons celebrates at Baltimore the fiftieth anniversary of his ordination to the priesthood and his twenty-fifth anniversary as Cardinal.

July 3.—The British seamen's strike ends, the men obtaining a majority of their demands.

July 4.—W. T. Stead, in a Fourth of July address at London, proposes that a statue of George Washington, "the greatest Englishman of the eighteenth century," be placed at Westminster.

July 5.—Judge Gary, presiding at the International Steel Conference at Brussels, advocates an international agreement.

July 7.—Lieutenant Conneau, the French army aviator, wins the 1000-mile circuit race from Paris to London and return, begun on June 18.

July 11.—Fourteen persons are killed, and many injured, in the wreck of the Federal Express, from Washington to Boston, which jumped the track at Bridgeport, Conn.

July 13.—A memorial tablet to William Penn is unveiled in the Church of All Hallows, London.

July 14.—Forest fires in northern Ontario, causing the loss of more than one hundred lives, are believed to be under control; the fires in northern Michigan and Maine are also reported to be dying out. . . Harry N. Atwood completes his aeroplane flight from Boston to Washington and is received by President Taft on the White House lawn.



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CONFEDERATE VETERANS AT THE GRAVES OF COMRADES ON THE FIELD OF BULL RUN
(MANASSAS), JULY 21, 1911

From left to right: W. C. Payne, James B. Spicer, George W. Johnson, A. C. McDonald, S. S. Jones, W. M. McDonald, and J. H. Gordon

July 16.—Twenty-one miners are killed in an explosion at the Cascade Mine at Sykesville, Pa.

July 17.—It is stated that the daily death average from cholera at Palermo is twenty and at Naples twelve. . . . The Belgian aviator Olieslagers makes a flight of 388 miles in an aeroplane at Brussels, a world's record. . . . A Russian railway loan of \$24,000,000 is arranged at Berlin by a group of German and Dutch financiers.

OBITUARY

June 21.—Bruno Oscar Klein, a well-known New York musician and composer, 53. . . . Clarence A. Knight, an eminent Chicago lawyer, 58.

June 24.—Rear-Adm. Charles Stuart Norton, U. S. N., retired, 74.

June 25.—Princess Clotilde, daughter of King Victor Emmanuel II. and aunt of the present Italian King, 68.

June 26.—Prof. Julian W. Baird, dean of the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy, 52.

June 28.—John Dobson, the well-known carpet manufacturer, 84. . . . Abraham Abraham, the prominent Brooklyn drygoods merchant and philanthropist, 68.

June 29.—Paul de Longpre, the painter of flowers, 56.

June 30.—Denis O'Connor, Archbishop of Toronto, 70.

July 1.—Eugene F. Ware, former Commissioner of Pensions and well known as the poet "Ironquill," 70. . . . Smith Ely, formerly mayor of New York City and an ex-member of Congress, 86. . . . John B. Sleman, Jr., founder of the Laymen's Missionary Movement, 37.

July 2.—Felix Mottl, director of the Royal Opera at Munich, 54. . . . Gen. Clement A. Evans, formerly commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans, 78. . . . Franklin A. Wilson, ex-president of the Maine Central Railroad, 78. . . . William J. Thompson, twenty years ago a leader in the New Jersey Democracy, 63.

July 4.—Franklin Fyles, the New York playwright and critic, 64. . . . Vaughan Kester, the novelist, 41.

July 5.—Maria Pia, formerly Queen Dowager of Portugal, 63.

July 7.—Edward Dicey, the English author and journalist, 79. . . . Representative Alexander C. Mitchell, of the 2nd Kansas District, 50.

July 8.—Prof. John P. Viteck, of Georgetown University, 30. . . . Ira Erastus Davenport, formerly well known as a spiritualist, 72.

July 10.—Frank A. Hooker, Justice of the Supreme Court of Michigan, 67. . . . Pierre Emil Levasseur, director of the College of France and a writer of histories of the laboring classes, 82. . . . George Gardner Rockwood, a well-known New York photographer, 79.

July 11.—Charles S. Southmayd, formerly a prominent New York lawyer, 64. . . . Charles Marie Claude, Marquis de Broughillier-Chavigny, the lecturer, and professor of French literature and politics at Harvard, 54.

July 12.—Sir Eldon Gorst, British Agent and Consul-General in Egypt, 50. . . . Edward L. Halstead, chief signal officer on the Staff of General Sheridan in Virginia, 71.

July 13.—Gen. W. B. Shattuc, ex-Congressman from Ohio, 70. . . . Timothy E. Ryan, Democratic National Committeeman of Wisconsin, 52.

July 14.—Prof. Hermann Senator, director of the Medical Polyclinic Institute of Berlin, 77.

July 15.—Noble P. Swift, a prominent meat-packer of Massachusetts, 80. . . . Louise, Dowager Duchess of Devonshire, 80.

July 16.—Theodore H. Freeland, president of the American Bank Note Company, 77. . . . Francis M. Osborne, a prominent coal operator of Cleveland, 56. . . . Col. Albert Clarke, the well-known Protectionist of Boston, 71.

July 18.—Mrs. Eliza Wright Osborne, a leader in the woman-suffrage movement in New York State, 81.

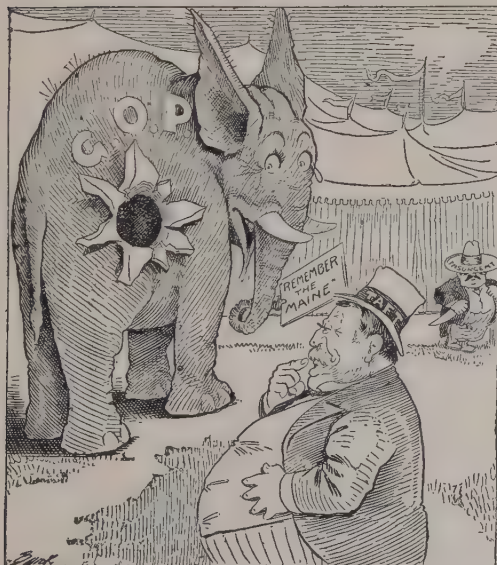
CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



SOME MORE ROUGH-RIDER

Proposed amendments to the Reciprocity Bill—and they were legion—were all killed or quashed, and the measure went to a vote in its original state.

From the *State Journal* (Columbus)



FROM WITHIN OR WITHOUT?

(As in the case of the *Maine*, the question is, Has the Republican party been injured from *within*, or *without*?)

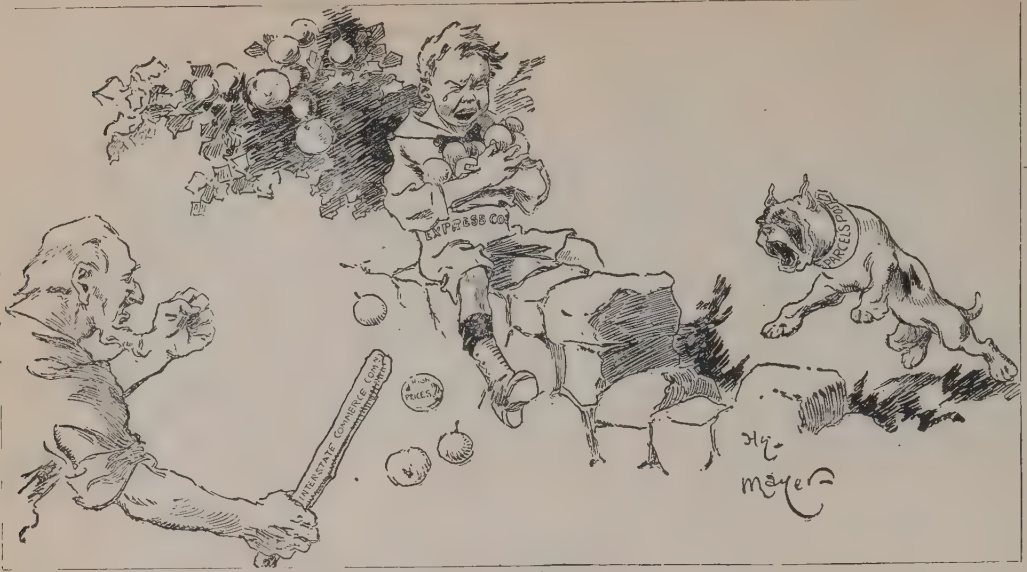
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



WAITING FOR THE VOTE

(—that is, on the Reciprocity Bill; but now that the vote has been taken, the farmer will wait for *his* chance to vote)

From the *Herald* (Washington)



BETWEEN TWO FIRES
From the Times (New York)

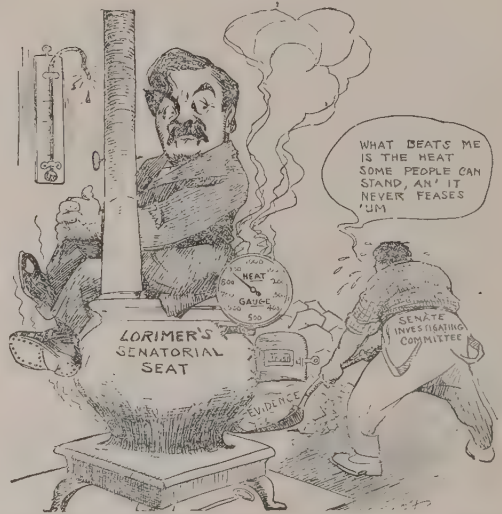


STILL TIME TO LOCK THE DOOR BEFORE THE HORSE
IS STOLEN
From the Journal (Minneapolis)

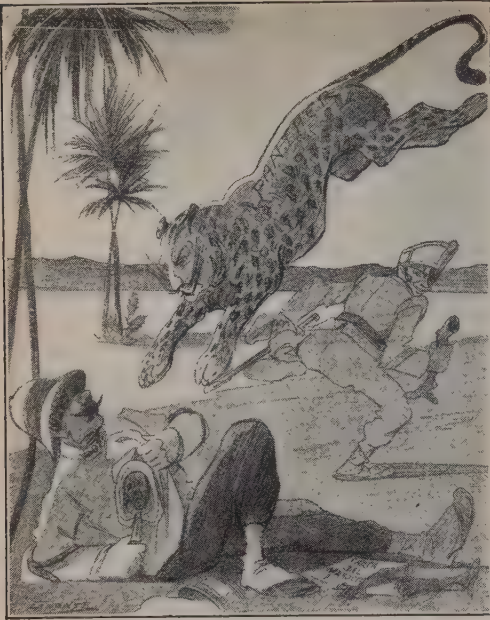


"UP WITH THE CURTAIN"
From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle)

With the Interstate Commerce Commission investigating on the one hand, and the agitation for a parcels post on the other, the express companies find themselves between two fires. Meanwhile they have reduced their rates. The conservation of our Alaskan resources is still a controversial question. The people are of opinion that they have not been fully informed about this matter,—hence the cartoon entitled "Up with the Curtain." The *Pioneer Press* cartoon reminds us that Senator Lorimer is still being investigated.



WEATHER INDICATIONS: THREATENING, WITH RISING TEMPERATURE
From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul)



FRANCE'S AFRICAN SURPRISE PARTY
From *Fischietto* (Zurin)

The Frenchman in Morocco, enjoying his siesta and unsuspecting of any danger, is rudely awakened by the "Panther" of the Sahara—a word play on the name of the vessel sent by Germany to Agadir, practically giving a challenge to French domination in Morocco.



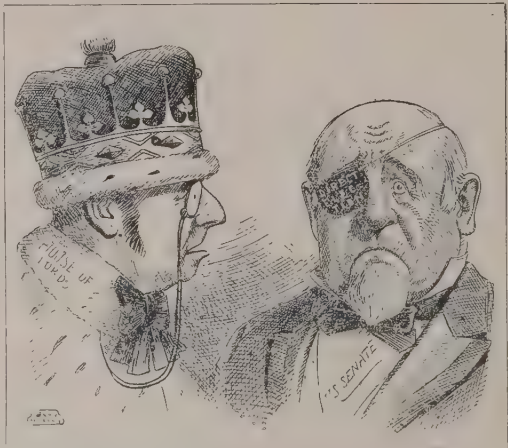
AGAIN A PIRATE IN THE CARIBBEAN?
(The exiled ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, is reported to be back,—or attempting "to come back")
From the *Inter Ocean* (Chicago)



THE MOROCCAN SITUATION
PARK POLICEMAN (John Bull): "Well, I'll be blown!"
From the *Star* (Montreal)



THE END OF THE CORONATION SEES THE LORDS' VETO FIGHT ON AGAIN
From the *Herald* (Montreal)



THE UNPOPULAR PEER: "CHEER UP, OLD TOP! THAT'S NOTHING TO WHAT'S COMING TO ME!"
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)



ADMIRAL TOGO, WHO WILL BE THE GUEST OF THE UNITED STATES
THIS MONTH

(The Japanese admiral, who is a lover of children, is here shown with a British sailor boy,
the eldest son of Rear Admiral Dundas)

ADMIRAL TOGO, TYPE OF SAMURAI¹

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE

THE house of Togo Kichizaemon, a Satsuma samurai of modest station, and the father of the celebrated Admiral, stood a neighbor to the house of Ito Mouemon. Mr. Ito (who must not be confounded with the late Prince Ito, of the Choshu clan) was a schoolmaster. Sixty years ago he taught the youth of Satsuma clan. He was more than a scholar and instructor. He was a philos-

opher also, of the school of the great Chinese sage, Wang Yang-ming. To his boys, Ito was wont to say: "The Way is the Way of all [who live] Under-Heaven. Who are Confucius and Mencius that they should monopolize it?"

A decidedly revolutionary note in those days, and it took very much more courage to say this—especially on the part of a

¹ In this intimate personal sketch of Admiral Togo, Mr. Adachi has assumed a knowledge, on the part of the general reader, of the more famous events of Togo's career. It may be well, however, to recall here a few of the main facts of his patriotic service. Togo first came into world notice in the autumn of 1894, when, as commander of the Japanese warship *Naniwa*, he fired upon the Chinese transport, the *Kowshing*, flying the British flag, but carrying Chinese troops to Korea. The complications then threatened did not ensue. Admiral Togo served all through the Russo-Japanese War, commanding the united fleet of Nippon.

He devoted his particular attention to guarding the home waters. On May 27, 1905, in the battle of Tsushima, or the Sea of Japan, he crushed the Russian Baltic fleet, under command of Admiral Rozhdestvenski. For his services in the Chinese War, he was promoted Vice-Admiral. Immediately after the Battle of the Sea of Japan, he was created Admiral. In June, with General Nogi, he represented Japan at the coronation of King George of England. This month, on his way home, he will pay a visit to the United States, and for a fortnight be the guest of the nation.

schoolmaster—than for Renan to write the "Life of Jesus" or Mrs. Ward "Robert Elsmere." The future Admiral was then too young to come under the direct and personal influence of the teacher of Satsuma, but the men who led him, who dominated his life and thought and whom he adored with all the idolatry of young enthusiasm, did receive this influence. Out of the school of Ito came the great Saigo, perhaps the greatest military genius the New Nippon has produced. As commander-in-chief of the Boracde Banners, as the imperial forces were called, Saigo did more to bring about the restoration of the imperial power and the downfall of the Shogunate than any other one man. Out of the same school came Okubo, who is counted as one of the four real authors of the New Nippon with the Emperor, the Great Saigo and Kido. Both Okubo and Saigo, especially Saigo, have, for fifty years, ever been the idols of the military men of Japan; Saigo had a dominant influence in the shaping of the career of the future Admiral. Through these great men with whom he came in contact Togo received a full measure of the wisdom of Wang Yang-ming which Schoolmaster Ito loved to expound.

SCHOOLED IN THE "POISE OF THE SOUL"

"I am no scholar," said the Admiral one day recently in reply to the question, "What has been the guiding torch of your life?" "I am no scholar. From my early youth, however, my masters have compelled me to examine and follow carefully the teachings of the school of Yomei (Wang Yang-ming). It seems to me that a soldier can derive a great deal of benefit from the study of Yomei."

The school of Yomei emphasizes the "poise of the soul." In the making of man, the school is partial to a fine balance of nerve, not at all stolid or dead but sensitive and active, which will not be disturbed by a little thing like the bursting of a bomb or facing the ghost of despair in the hour of defeat.

Here then is the foundation stone upon which the life of the fighting sailor of Nippon is built. And since there is no other human being either living or out of history who can stand upon the same platform with the Admiral Togo save the heroic shade of Nelson, perhaps (judged by the only standard by which men should be judged—that of the magnitude of achievement), the above mentioned little fact may be of some importance to the student of military life.

It was in the twilight hours of the Shogun-

nate that a few young men left Satsuma for the then newly opened treaty port of Yokohama. With their top knots and the swords of their ancestors at their belts, they went to school to an Englishman there that they might learn of the speech and the wonders of the West. The future admiral was one of them. When the imperial command "descended" upon the Satsuma clan to break down the power of the Shogun, the Togo served on board the now historic warship, *Kasuga*, a two-funnelled, three-masted, paddle-wheel vessel of 1015 tons. In 1870, he was ordered to the *Ryujo*, a ship built at Aberdeen and originally intended, so report said, for the Confederacy. At the same time the Admiral was promoted, for the first time, to be an "apprentice" cadet. In the following year, at the age of nearly twenty-four, he had the good fortune to be selected as one of the twelve government students sent to England for the study of a modern navy in its practical operation. Togo was trained aboard the training ship *Worcester* at Plymouth under Captain Smith. About the time he was finishing his course of studies in England, the Nippon Government ordered the construction of the *Hiyei* at a British yard and Togo was given the commission to superintend its building as the inspector representing the Japanese government. It was on this newly built cruiser, the *Hiyei*, that he returned home in May, 1878.

He was then thirty years of age; he had left his student life behind him.

As a young man and student, there are many tales which make him famous for his stupidity and slowness of perception. The best that Captain Smith could say for him—and that too after the fame of Togo had circled the globe with the report of the Battle of the Sea of Japan—was:

"Togo was an excellent fellow. He was not what you would call brilliant, but a great plodder, slow to learn, but very sure when he had learnt. . . ."

"Fool Heihachi" was the fond title by which Marquis Saigo Judo, the younger brother of the Great Saigo, used to call the Admiral. In fact the Marquis Saigo was the Minister of Marine at the time of the Chinese-Japanese war. When the report of the sinking of the now famous *Kowshing* (a British ship chartered as a transport by China but sailing under the British colors), by the captain of the *Naniwa*, who was no other than the present Admiral Togo himself, reached Tokyo, Prince Ito, who was the premier at the time, called a cabinet council at once. "It's a

terrific mess," said Prince Ito. "It may cause no end of troublesome complications."

Saigo, then Minister of Marine, sympathized with his chief: "Togo has always been a fool—since his boyhood times," he said. "He's a fool now as of old. It's a pity to make a fool commit harakiri, though. . . ."

With all that the fact stands that Togo was one of a few young samurai whom the godlike foresight of the great Saigo had picked out from among the thousands of Satsuma youths. And the reward of Nippon's faith in the judgment of the great Saigo came on the 28th of May 1906, when both the Baltic Squadron of Russia and the Battle of the Nippon Sea had passed into history.

Upon his return from England he found the Nippon Navy in its cradle days. He was for a time the only officer who had enjoyed such an extended training abroad. So he had the center of the stage. He had no time for putting on airs, however, there were so many things for him to do. His rise in the navy has not been rapid but steady. The very constitution of the fighting force of Nippon does not permit the possibility of a one-man power—of a spectacular Napoleonic or Nelsonian régime. That perhaps is the reason why there is so little of Admiral Togo in his official report of what has been called the greatest naval battle ever fought in the history of man and such a great deal of the sovereign virtue of his Majesty the Emperor and the devotion of the men and officers under him. That, also, is the reason why the greatness of the commander becomes all the more brilliant, because of the difficulties of commanding the confidence and the hero-worship of his men under such conditions. That again is the reason why the Admiral is a rather disappointing feature on a military parade and in the after-dinner speechmaking séances and such soul-filling comfort on the bridge of a *Mikasa*.

Of the public career of Admiral Togo since the Russian war—even since the Chinese War—a good deal has already been written. Let us, therefore, seek him in a less frequented corner—in much more intimate circles. Let us try, if we may, to catch a glimpse or two of the Admiral among his own loved ones.

TOGO'S MODEST TOKYO HOME

Pray deign, then, to avoid the fashionable sections of the city of Toyko, and its wealthy and even aristocratic corners. Be pleased to scatter your steps far away from the center

of the city and roam at your sweet will in places where simplicity sets up housekeeping, in piping peace with dignity, and you are very likely to pass in front of a gate leading to a small house set in the center of a garden like a charming, albeit a homely gem. Admiral Togo lives there with his family. He may pay more than thirty dollars a month rent for the house and the garden; I rather doubt it. It is the same house that Sir Claude MacDonald, the British Ambassador, had a mischief of a time in finding. It was in the Russian War time; the Ambassador wished to present to the Admiral a decoration from his home government. A report has it that Sir Claude passed and repassed the modest gate more than half a dozen times. I suppose that he saw the number on the gate post was correct. He did not, however, enter the gate. How could it be possible for the famous sailor whose name was familiar even on the lips of street gamins of Paris, London, and New York, to live in so humble a cottage? Certainly it was not built for the social entertainments and functions of the officers of the Imperial Navy, nor of cabinet ministers. Sir Claude ended by finding that the Admiral did live there. It has been reported, moreover, that the Admiral did not suffer much in the esteem of the Ambassador when the surprise was over.

When you pass through the gate you will be greeted by a couple of smiling dogs—I mean the tail-wagging setters. With them you should be entirely at home. I have it from a distinguished American lady that they understand English perfectly, as all good dogs do. Admiral Togo loves them for certain other accomplishments of theirs besides the understanding of English—they understand the language of birds. They can read the hieroglyphics which the deer and the wild boar print on mountain paths as they pass. Gun on shoulder, in the company of his dogs, with winter's breath upon his face, and the Admiral is perfectly happy. He indulges in this favorite pastime of his in one of those rare days of leisure when duty lets him out of school.

Madame Togo may tell you the following incident, as she did some time ago to a reporter of one of the Tokyo newspapers: It was the day when the Admiral bade farewell to his family. He had received the imperial command to take charge of the united fleet of Nippon waiting for him at Saseho. He was leaving his home for the battlefield.

"As he was leaving the house," said Madame Togo, "he turned to me and said,

'Pray be good enough to look after my dogs!' That was about the only thing he did say to me in parting."

I wonder if the Occident could appreciate the meaning of this brief request of the very silent man. When a samurai leaves his home for war, he exchanges the cups of cold water with those whom he leaves behind. It is the token that he is dead to the world; and only by a miracle does he expect to see them in the flesh again. And at the hour of parting, when his thoughts must have been flooding full with its heart-rending pathos, his last words commended the companions of his happy hours afire into the care of one in whom he had supreme confidence.

HIS LOVE OF FLOWERS

As you pass up along the chrysanthemum bordered path toward the Togo home you will see what a marvelous amount of patience and tender care have been lavished upon the flowers. None of his countrymen have asked the Admiral if he would rather stay with his flowers than go to London and be lionized at a hundred banquets. None could ask the question,—it would be so self-evidently silly—even from what little we know of the Admiral. One might as well ask a child whether he would rather have a piece of candy or take a dose of quinine. The Admiral would a thousand times rather stay with his flowers. To parade through a social function is bitter mortification to his flesh; to enjoy the poetry spelled out in Nature's colors is a passion with him. I know that gun-play and sword-play have not always rhymed with the blushings of May in Occidental thought. But it is different with us Japanese. Since the time of the gods, the lover of the blade with no passion for flowers in his soul has been ranked with pirates and assassins in the eyes of the samurai.

One of the most popular tales told to the children of Japan in twilight hours is of an ancient warrior who had gone into the thick of battle with a spray of flowering cherry in his quiver. The battle lost, his quiver empty, his blade broken and covered with many wounds, he seated himself as the shades of night were falling about him, and taking out the cherry branch, now bare of blossoms, he regretted with his last breaths, the fortune of the day so unkind to the flower! Does this sound like soft, ladylike twaddle to Occidental ears? Then you have never really understood the ideal of the samurai.

You will receive another proof of this as

you follow a maid who would beg you to "honorably pass this way," into a reception room of the Togo cottage. But let us steal a glance at the appointment of the room. Unlike some other reception rooms in Nippon homes, the matted floor is covered with a carpet. The Admiral, you see, has been rather popular among his foreign friends. Many of them have come to see him. And, as it is very painful for Madame Togo or even her maid to beg her guests to take off their shoes at the threshold, and because it is painfully inconvenient for her guests to do so, this concession has been made. In the same spirit, doubtless, a stand and a few chairs are permitted to remain in the room; for not every one, even among the most graceful exponents of Western calisthenics, can sit down on the soft matted floor upon her doubled-up limbs and heels, as all the polite Japanese people are expected to do—especially when a visit happens to be more than one hour long.

THE TOGO HOSPITALITY

There is a low platform in the small alcove of honor, called *tokonoma*. You must be very careful not to take your seat too close to it, although, of course, the hostess would insist upon your so doing;—for the nearest to the *tokonoma* is the seat of honor. There, you will see a flower composition set in a vase. Yes, invariably. The walls of the room are not covered with old swords, armors and medals and historic flags—none of those. But just above the flower composition, on the wall of the *tokonoma*, you will see a pair of rectangular cards, rather ample in proportion, set in a frame. On one of them is painted a wild cherry in flower; on the other a sun-flag over a battleship.

"My husband loves these two pictures," Madame Togo is reported to have said to Mrs. Mary Crawford Fraser, the authoress, and wife of the famous diplomat who visited her. "They are very, very precious to him. When he returned from Tsushima [the battle of the Sea of Japan] he went to pay a visit to the Emperor's daughters. Just as he was going away, the eldest princess said, 'Please wait a moment, I want to paint something for you!' So she sat down and made those two pictures and gave them to him. He was so touched and pleased."

A naval flag of Japan waving over a battleship—that certainly is very appropriate for a fighting sailor. But why a mountain cherry in flower? The mountain cherry has

always stood as an emblem of the samurai. It flowers in the silences of the hills far from the vanity of the world, utterly indifferent to the eye of man. Only the mist of spring—so dear to the heart of a Japanese poet—mantles it with purple. Its flowers are chastened with the mendicant simplicity of color. They do not last long; they feed the hunger of winds with that smiling peace and readiness of a philosopher who knows the time to die. Hence the classic verse:

*Shikishima no Yamato gokorowo
Hito towaba;
Asa hini niwo
Yama zakura kana!*

If a man were to ask you,
What of the soul of Yamato;
Oh, point to the Mountain Cherry, in answer,
Fragrant in the light of a dawning day!

THE CHARM OF MADAME TOGO

When you sit tête-à-tête with Madame Togo, you will not see a beautiful woman. You will give her some forty-five years, doubtless. She is small and slender of stature. What is it that makes her so different from other women? You feel it; you are enchanted by it; the noblest that is in your soul falls pell-mell in love with it. But when your flesh-bound mind essays at analysis, it becomes helpless, "fox-possessed" as the Japanese put it. The patrician blood, refined through centuries and centuries of gentle training, is in her veins. She came from a much prouder house than that of the Admiral. Madame Togo Tetsu-ko is the eldest daughter of Viscount Kaieda. But pride of bearing is about the last thing that you will think of when you stand spellbound in the magic of her smile, in the melody of her soft voice. The Japanese hold that the nobler a person is, the more modestly should she carry herself, for of all the graces of life, nothing becomes nobility quite as well as modesty.

Madame Togo has three children, two sons and one daughter. The boys attend the nobles' school, called Gaku-shu In, and the daughter is in the Peeresses' School. As the mother, rather than a social leader, the grateful posterity will doubtless remember Madame Togo. Things which are said of the children of a great man are not always kind. And it must be confessed that in an overwhelmingly majority of cases, they are painfully true. None of them can ever be said of

the children of the Admiral. The Admiral is famous as a disciplinarian in the navy; it is largely because he has adopted the young cadets of the imperial navy as his own children and treats them as such. And they know it.

"Father Togo, now gray haired, walks quietly to and fro on the bridge of the *Mikasa*," wrote a Japanese officer in an intimate letter. The Admiral indeed is more famous for his love for children than for his victories—among those who know him well.

Togo the Terrible, one of the American newspaper reporters dubbed him once in the war days. He ought to see the Admiral in the midst of children. He is a perfect picture of a loving grandfather. Silent and sparing of words in the company of grown-ups, he laughs full-lunged and heartily when he is with children. All Tokyo newspapers testify that the most beautiful and touching smile which lighted up the Admiral's face on his return from the battlefield to his home city, was called forth by the "banzai" of school children.

When Tokyo was on the crest of the riotous flood of enthusiasm to welcome the victorious Admiral home, the boys of the Imperial University hatched up a deep laid plot which was quite Occidental. They heard of the imperial carriage which the Emperor sent to the Admiral that he might ride in it. They were to waylay the great sailor in the imperial carriage; unharness the horses and harnessing themselves in their places, to give him a good ride through the streets of Tokyo. The Admiral heard of it. He sent his chief of staff in the carriage and with the hand of his little daughter in his, he walked unnoticed amid the mob of people, along with the procession. And of course enjoyed the joke immensely.

The Admiral does not like to make speeches. Heavens! what a time he will have this month in America, poor Admiral! But he can be eloquent when he wishes. Witness his speech to the spirits of the dead of his own command at the Aoyama cemetery. But on that occasion, there came to pass an incident much more eloquent than even his memorable speech. The Admiral took a child by the hand, a child whose father had died in battle; "Come," said he, "for I am going to talk to your father." And his eyes filled as those of a woman. Togo the Terrible? Nonsense!



Photograph by George J. Hare, Buffalo

BEACHEY FLYING OVER NIAGARA FALLS

(Niagara Falls has been the scene of some sensational feats. Fifty years ago Blondin crossed on a tight rope. Last month Lincoln Beachey flew over the Falls and under the Suspension Bridge in his biplane, to the wonder of 50,000 spectators)

THE AEROPLANE—A YEAR'S MARVELOUS PROGRESS

BY WILLIAM MENKEL

SWIFT—amazingly swift—like the aeroplane itself, has been the advance in the art of flying. The "birdman" has already migrated to many lands. His flights have linked coasts and capitals, and international boundaries have been disregarded. Thousands of journeys have been made through the air, and flying "meets" and exhibitions by the hundreds have been held all over the world. The lines of human flight are constantly weaving closer meshes over the surface of the globe. Naturally, America and Europe are taking the lead in the development of the art, but South America, Africa, and Australia are also keenly interested. Even the drowsy empires of the East,—China, India, and Siam,—are craning their necks skyward as the wonderful new invention circles overhead. Although the Kingdom of the Air is the greatest and the most

dangerous, and has been the hardest for man to conquer, a single year has seen more progress in the manufacture, the use, and the achievements of the flying-machine than has been the case in the history of any other vehicle of transportation.

RECORDS OF THE YEAR

A year ago the highest altitude attained was about 6000 feet, the greatest speed sixty-seven miles an hour, the longest continuous flight 245 miles in five hours, the longest over-water flight forty-five miles, and three was the largest number of passengers carried. Since then an altitude of 11,476 feet has been reached, a continuous flight of 388 miles, and an over-water flight of 140 miles have been achieved, and as many as thirteen persons have been carried in an aeroplane.

Within the year past the most hazardous trips have been successfully accomplished. Snow-capped mountains, yawning ravines, rivers and lakes and seas and canyoned cities have alike been triumphed over by the intrepid airman. The icy fastnesses of the Alps impeded the progress of such indomitable conquerors as Hannibal and Napoleon. But the daring and lamented Chavez, rising 7000 feet high and battling with wind and storm, soared over them in a flight that will always remain an epic in the chronicles of aviation. The Harz and the Pyrenees have become mere "bunkers" in the sport, over which the aeroplanes raced triumphantly just a few weeks ago. Niagara Falls, the Irish Sea, the Gulf of Mexico, Long Island Sound, and the Gulf of Genoa have all been flown over, and airmen have toyed with the surf of the Atlantic and the placid waters of the Pacific. As for the English Channel, that immemorial barrier between England and France—it has been reduced practically to an aerial ferry. How the world applauded two years ago when Bleriot, taking the wings of the morning, cleared the distance between Calais and Dover, and dropped down upon the surprised Britishers. Yet in the past twelve months the Channel has been crossed and recrossed, not simply from coast to coast, but from capital to capital,—as Pierre Prier



Photograph by Paul Thompson, N. Y.

LINCOLN BEACHEY, THE DARING YOUNG AVIATOR WHO FLEW OVER NIAGARA FALLS

flew, going from London to Paris, 250 miles, in a little over three hours, and as did Tom Sopwith, the brilliant young Englishman now in this country, who traced an air line from the Isle of Sheppey, to Beaumont, in Belgium, 175 miles, carrying off a prize of \$20,000.

LONG CROSS-COUNTRY FLIGHTS

And how astonishingly the recent cross-country flights compare with the feeble efforts of a few years ago. Go back just five brief years. Picture the enthusiastic crowds around Santos-Dumont at Bagatelle, as he actually rises from the ground in a power-driven machine and flies—eighty yards! Or recall Wright's flight of fifty-nine seconds in 1903. And wonderful achievements they were in those days. Then consider what has been done during the past year,—Lieutenant Menard's flight with a passenger from Mourmelon to Portiers (May 25), 373 miles in nine hours; Captain Bellenger's equally long flight from Paris to Bordeaux; Lieutenant Bague's 140-mile dash over the Gulf of Genoa; Renoux, achieving what had been thought impossible, by flying with a passenger from Paris to the Puy de Dome, a mountain 4500 feet high



Photograph by Paul Thompson, N. Y.

CHARLES T. WEYMANN, AMERICAN, WINNER OF THE GORDON-BENNETT INTERNATIONAL SPEED TROPHY OF 1911



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HENRY N. ATWOOD FLYING OVER THE YALE-HARVARD BOAT RACE AT NEW LONDON LAST MONTH

(During England's classic water event,—the Oxford-Cambridge race,—this year, half a dozen aeroplanes viewed the contest from aloft)

in the South of France; Wynmalen's trip with a passenger from Paris to Brussels and return in 28 hours; Curtiss' 150-mile flight down the Hudson River; Hamilton's flight from New York to Philadelphia; young Atwood's 576-mile trip last month from Boston to Washington, with stops en route, and McCurdy's 90-mile flight over the Gulf of Mexico.

SPEED AND PASSENGER-CARRYING

In speed, also, progress has been notable. Weyman, the Gordon-Bennett Cup winner this year, flew seventy-eight miles an hour in his Nieuport monoplane, as compared with Grahame-White's time of sixty-two miles at Belmont Park last year, and Glenn Curtiss' forty-seven miles at Reims in 1909. Even faster time—eighty, and ninety, and a hundred miles an hour—has been achieved. In fact, when flying with a strong wind, machines have gone considerably above the 100-mile mark.

Passenger-carrying also has been remark-

ably developed. When the first passenger was taken up, it was hailed as a great triumph, valuable especially for military scouting, which requires a pilot for the machine and another man to make observations. But two-passenger flights soon became common. Then three, four, five, six, eight persons were successfully taken up. Nor was this the limit. Louis Breguet actually took up eleven besides himself in his biplane, and next day Sommer, not to be outdone—for he had been holding records in this line—went aloft with thirteen, including himself. These feats certainly foreshadow the development of a regular passenger-carrying aeroplane that will accommodate at least half a dozen persons.

SOLDIERS IN THE SKY

But the one big fact that stands out with startling distinctness in the record of the past year is the actual entrance of the aeroplane on its military and naval career. In a small but

satisfactory way, it has served its apprenticeship to Mars. The machine may be far from perfect, it may not be able effectively to deal out destruction from aloft, its progress over the battlefield may be cut short by specially constructed guns—although on these points there is a decided difference of opinion—but it is, nevertheless, certain that the next clash that comes between any of the great nations will see the aeroplane hovering over the theater of war. In America, as well as in Europe, the usefulness of the flying-machine for military purposes has been fully demonstrated. While our troops were in Texas during the Mexican disturbance, Lieutenant Foulois and Philip Parmalee made a reconnoitering trip of 106 miles in a few hours, observing the lay of the land to much better advantage and in much less time than could scouts on horseback. In the autumn maneuvers in France the speed and facility with which orders and messages were transmitted and information gathered, was a revelation. As a result governmental interest in aviation received a decided impetus. The leading nations are setting about acquiring more and more machines, vying with each



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

WEYMAN FLYING IN THE GORDON-BENNETT RACE
AT EASTCHURCH, ENGLAND, ON JULY 1

(He used a Nieuport machine, the fastest aeroplane made)



Photograph by The International Press Photo. Company, New York

LOUIS BREGUET, THE FRENCH AVIATOR, CARRYING TWELVE PERSONS IN HIS BIPLANE

(One of the boys being hidden from view)

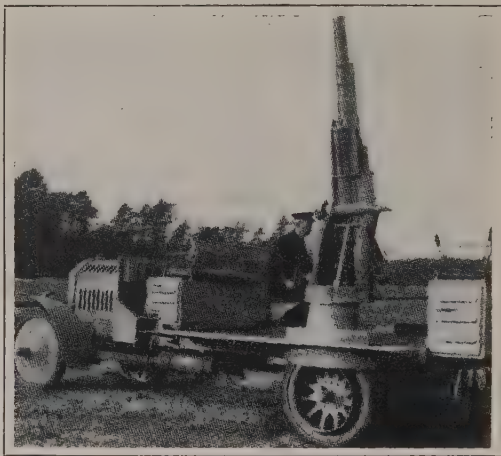


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CAPTAIN CHANDLER, IN CHARGE OF THE GOVERNMENT AVIATION SQUAD AT COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND

other in the formation of aerial navies, establishing training schools for aviators, forming flying squadrons, and generally encouraging the art of flying. France is taking the lead, and by competitions and liberal prizes is promoting the development of more efficient military aeroplanes. She has several squadrons of aviators and over a hundred machines. A military squadron of five Bleriot's recently flew from Pau to Tarbes, twenty-two miles, where the aviators visited another garrison, were applauded and fêted, and then mounted their machines and returned. The United States Government has recently purchased a number of machines for naval and military use—both the Wright and Curtiss types, including several of the new Curtiss hydro-aeroplanes,—which will be the nucleus of an

American aerial fleet. An aviation school is to be established at Annapolis for the Navy Department. A military flying squad has already been formed, and active work in instruction and practice is going on daily at the military aviation grounds at College Park, Maryland. Ely's feat in landing on and flying from the deck of the battleship *Pennsylvania* showed the possibilities of the aeroplane as an adjunct of the warship, and the new Dreadnoughts of the American navy will each be provided with one of these aerial couriers. Experiments in wireless communication from an aeroplane having proven suc-



ONE OF THE NEW AUTOMOBILE GUNS FOR FIRING AT AEROPLANES

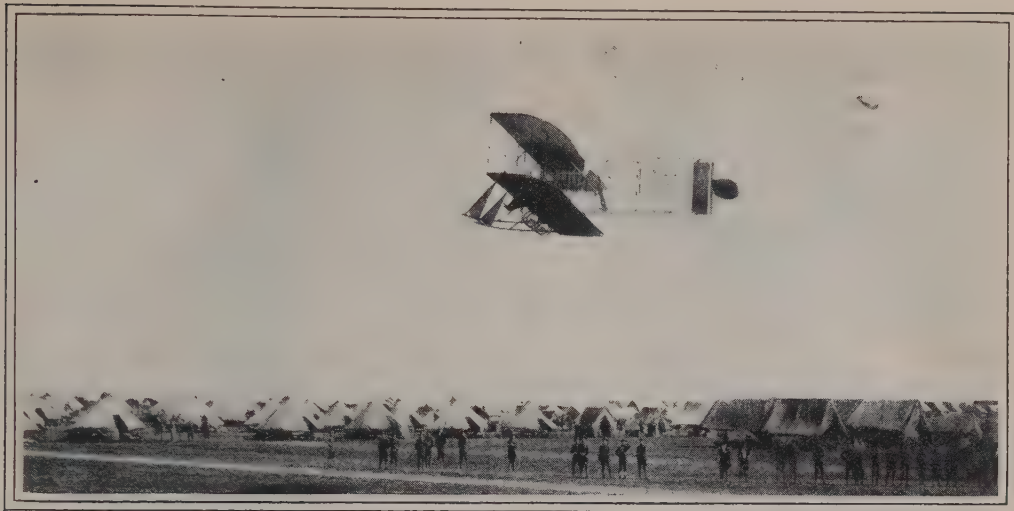
(It is reported that the United States now owns the latest and most powerful weapon for use against aeroplanes)

cessful, the military aeroplane will henceforth be equipped with apparatus making possible the instant transmission of information and orders between the scouts and headquarters. Practice in marksmanship and bomb throwing from aeroplanes at dummy battleships has been a feature of many flying exhibitions.



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THE GOVERNMENT AEROPLANE SHEDS AT COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND



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LIEUTENANT FOULOIS FLYING IN TEXAS

(During the recent mobilization of American troops, Aviator Parmalee and Lieutenant Foulis made a remarkable reconnoitering flight of 106 miles)

THE GREAT EUROPEAN "CIRCUIT" RACES

The most interesting contests of the past year have been the international "circuit" races of Europe. These events engaged many of the world-famous flyers, large prizes being offered, and the progress of the contestants was watched with wide interest. The Paris-to-Madrid Race, organized by the *Petit Parisien*, had a 766-mile course, with the Pyrennees in the pathway. This was won by Vedrines, who received a prize of \$12,000, and an enthusiastic popular ovation at Madrid, and was presented to King Alfonso. In the Paris-Rome-Turin Race, promoted by the

Petit Journal, four men succeeded in reaching Rome (909 miles). They were led by André Beaumont, who flew into the Eternal City amid a popular demonstration that made a "Roman holiday" in strange contrast to those of ancient times. The Pope was among those most interested, and telescopes were posted on the Vatican to apprise him of the coming of the flying machines. Beaumont, whose real name is Lieutenant Conneau, received a prize of \$20,000, and was knighted by King Humbert. He was also the first to finish in the great "International Circuit," early in July. This race started from Paris, followed a course to Utrecht, London, and back to



THE AVIATION GROUNDS AT HENDON, ENGLAND

(Showing dummy battleship and fort marked on the ground, as targets for bombs thrown from aeroplanes)



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.
LIEUTENANT CONNEAU, OF THE FRENCH NAVY, WHO
FLIES UNDER THE NAME OF ANDRÉ BEAUMONT
(First in the Paris-to-Rome race, and first in the International Circuit, winning altogether about \$50,000)

Paris, taking in a number of cities on the way. The distance was approximately a thousand miles, divided into stages with prizes for each stage. Nine men completed the course.

These circuit races have been popular in Europe, many smaller events of this kind having been held in France, Germany and other countries. We have not had anything like them in America, but a good deal of flying has been going on all the time all over the country. Local "meets" have taken place in almost every State, and hardly a city of any size has been without its flying exhibition. Exhibition companies have been unable to fill all the engagements offered. Soon there will



Photograph by Paul Thompson, N. Y.
ROLAND GARROS, SECOND IN THE GREAT INTERNATIONAL EUROPEAN CIRCUIT
(A probable contestant at Chicago this month)

be comparatively few persons living anywhere near a large community who have not had an opportunity to see a real flying machine in action. Large sums are constantly being offered for exhibitions or for special trips. Something like a million dollars in prizes has already gone into the pockets of the airmen, and over a million is waiting to be won. The prominent newspapers of the world have been especially active in organizing races and offering generous inducements.

FLYERS MULTIPLYING RAPIDLY

The number of those who go up in the air in ships is constantly increasing. True, the heavens are not as yet black with the birdmen in the vicinity of any one of us, but the total of the world's flock of flyers has enormously increased, and thousands of nestlings are constantly putting out into the air. Taking



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York
RENAUX AND SENOUE LEAVING DOVER FOR PARIS ON THE LAST STAGE
OF THE INTERNATIONAL EUROPEAN CIRCUIT

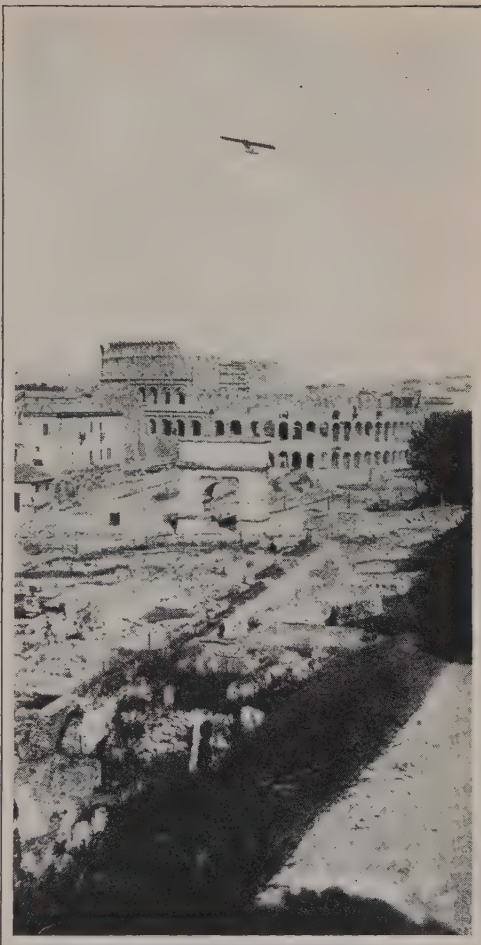
(This pair won the \$20,000 Michelin prize for the flight from Paris to the Puy de Dome in March)

into account the many aviation schools already in existence, and the great host of airmen flying independently in different parts of the world, it is estimated that the actual number of flyers is near 3000. Of the 700 recognized pilots, over half belong to France, 128 to Great Britain, forty-six to Germany, thirty-eight to Italy, thirty-seven to Russia, and thirty-one to America. Of the 700 or more machines of standard types used, the biplanes are in a majority of about fifty. The Farman leads with 135, the other makes following at different figures below sixty, Wrights numbering thirty-nine and the Curtiss thirteen. Among the monoplanes, Bleriot stands at the top with 158, the Antoinette being second with thirty-seven.

THE HYDRO-AEROPLANE,—AND OTHER IMPROVEMENTS

The Curtiss "hydro-aeroplane" has been one of the most important developments in aviation in the past year. This wonderful machine alights on and rises from the water, skims the surface like a seabird, flies in the air, and wheels along the ground,—being, in short, a universal vehicle, the value of which for sport, business, and war purposes cannot be overestimated.

Aside from the hydro-aeroplane, few changes sufficiently radical to be apparent to the laymen have been made in the aeroplane, although improvements are constantly being effected. The "headless" biplane has been evolved in the Wright, Farman, and Voisin types by the abandonment of the front elevator. Bleriot, while adhering to the general design of his Channel-crosser of two years ago, has added some refinements of construc-



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE ANCIENT AND THE MODERN
(Beaumont, winner of the Paris-to-Rome race, flying over the Coliseum)



M. VÉDRINES, AFTER WINNING THE PARIS-TO-MADRID RACE
(King Alfonso inspecting his machine)



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.

TOM SOPWITH, THE ENGLISH FLYER

(Last December he won the de Forest prize of \$20,000 for a flight from England to Belgium. He is now flying in this country)

tion and is equipping his monoplanes with map holder, level indicator, altimeter, and compass. In his passenger-carrier, weight and size are increased, and wing-warping has been abandoned in favor of hinged flaps. The problem of automatic stability is one on which inventors are concentrating. Some experts do not believe it can be achieved; others do. The new Antoinette monoplane is fitted with a weighted horizontal rudder which keeps the machine on a level course without guidance from the pilot, while Lieutenant Dunne, with his V-shaped biplane, calmly circled about in the air while making

notes with a lead pencil. The fireproofing of aeroplane material is also receiving some attention, owing to the burning of pilots in several cases where the flimsy material of the machine caught fire.

Absolute reliability of the motor has not yet been attained, and many involuntary and disastrous descents have resulted from the sudden stoppage of the engine. Atwood was much troubled in this way on his recent trip from Atlantic City to Washington. But the motor has been much improved in the last few years, and the constant efforts applied in this direction are bound to produce a more perfect engine. The safest plan, however, seems to be to provide the flying machine with a double power plant and propellers capable of being operated independently, so that when one engine stops the other may be used. Mr. Edwin Gould and the *Scientific American* are offering a prize of \$15,000 for a successful equipment of this kind. The shifting of the engine to a position in front of the operator instead of at his back is also a good move. In a number of accidents, aviators who might otherwise have escaped with injuries have been crushed to death by having their motors fall on them. Variability of speed in the motor is also greatly desired. Many otherwise successful flights have ended disastrously because of the inability of the aeroplane to make a safe and easy landing at the present high rate of speed.

HOW THE INDUSTRY IS DEVELOPING

The business of manufacturing flying machines and accessories is growing tremendously. It has been stated that in a single year from the time Bleriot crossed the English Channel, the sales of flying machines ex-



Photograph by the Pictorial News Company, New York

THE NEW CURTISS HYDRO-AEROPLANE

(This machine made several highly satisfactory flights at Lake Keuka, New York, in July)



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MISS HARRIET QUIMBY CLIMBING INTO THE SEAT OF HER MOISANT MONOPLANE

(She is flying regularly at the Mineola field on Long Island)

ceeded the sales of automobiles in the first year of their commercial use. Most of the leading makes of machines are now being sold in this country, and you may select your aeroplane from a catalogue just as you may an automobile. Among the best known companies engaged in manufacturing aeroplanes in the United States are the Wright, the Curtiss, Queen, McCurdy-Willard, the Burgess-Wright, and Schneider. The Farman, Bleriot, and other foreign machines are also being manufactured here. The manufacture of small aeroplane models is also a thriving industry. These ingenious toys are built on the lines of the various well-known types of biplanes and monoplanes and are practical and interesting playthings.

Besides the Aero Club of America, which has just opened its handsome new home in New York City, there are many State aero clubs and other societies devoted to the art of aerial navigation. Colleges and universities have their aeronautical organizations and are doing practical work in building and flying gliders and aeroplanes. Even the school-boys, with their toy models, have their aero-clubs and competitions. The quickness with which the youngsters develop into real flyers is shown in the performance of Howard Levan, a seventeen-year-old Toledo boy, who flew for thirty-two miles across-country, and

George L. Schmitt, of Rutland, Vt., who is making daily flights at the Mineola grounds, staying up as long as twenty minutes. Women also are entering the field, or rather the air. France boasts half a dozen women pilots, while we have several in America who have done creditable work, among them being Miss Harriet Quimby, Mrs. James V. Martin, and Miss Blanche Scott.

LAWS FOR THE AIRMAN

The law has, of course, followed man into the air. Connecticut is the first State to pass a comprehensive act, going into effect next January, for the regulation of aerial traffic. Pilots must be twenty-one years old and have a license, and they must carry numbers three feet high on their machines. Massachusetts and New York also have bills under consideration for the regulation of flying. The speed with which an aeroplane can cover several States suggests the question whether pilots should not be licensed by the federal Government rather than by the State. With the more general use of flying machines, the old legal maxim that the ownership of land extends upward indefinitely will no doubt be modified. The aerial ocean should be as free as the Atlantic or the Pacific. The first International Congress on Aviation Law met



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

AN AEROPLANE SMASH-UP—HAMEL'S ACCIDENT IN THE GORDON-BENNETT CONTEST

(This picture shows vividly the completeness with which a flying-machine is often wrecked by a fall. "Bud" Mars' biplane presented a similar picture after his mishap of July 14)

at Paris early in June and adopted seventeen clauses of an agreement which is to furnish the basis of an aerial code. There is, however, no unanimity on the subject as yet.

ACCIDENTS

A sad chapter in the past year's aviation has been furnished by the disasters and deaths. Almost every country has helped to swell the list of casualties. America lost three of her most brilliant flyers,—Arch Hoxsey, who fell at Los Angeles; Moisant, who fell at New Orleans, and Ralph Johnstone, who dropped to death at Denver. Although accidents seem to be on the increase, it must be remembered that the number of persons flying is rapidly growing. Many amateurs all over the world are daily trying out their machines, and when, by reason of imperfection in the construction of his aeroplane, or inexperience in flying, the amateur comes to grief, the newspaper dispatches herald the death of another "aviator." But these disasters will not discourage flying, or prove a serious detriment to the progress of the art. Every advance of mankind has been attended with hardship, and the bones of the pioneers have ever marked the trail. The flying-machine is still young and susceptible of improvement. Thirty-three per cent. of aero-



From the *Scientific American*, N. Y.

THE BELGIAN CROSS, AN EARTH SIGNAL USED TO GUIDE THE AERIAL PILOT

(The name on the cross bar tells the location, and the arrow-head, pointing north, tells the direction)



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.

JAMES C. MARS, A DARING EXHIBITION FLYER

("Bud" Mars had a bad fall at Erie, Penn., on July 14; but luckily recovered. He made a notable tour of the Far East last autumn with Captain Baldwin and Tod Shriver, flying in Japan, China, India, the Philippines, Sumatra, Java, Singapore, Siam, Korea, Russia and Poland)



Photograph by Paul Thompson, N. Y.

VÉDRINES, WINNER OF THE PARIS-MADRID-RACE

(Védérines flies a Morane monoplane. He covered the 766-mile course in an actual flying time of 12 hours, 18 minutes, winning a prize of \$12,000. He also competed in the International Circuit early in July, winning some prizes)



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

ST. CROIX JOHNSTONE, A PROMINENT NEW AMERICAN FLYER

(Mr. Johnstone, in his monoplane, made a picturesque appearance over the Meadow Brook Club field on Long Island during the international polo matches in June, dropping down a shower of flowers with his congratulations to the winning team. He is to fly at the Chicago meet this month)

plane accidents have been due to the breakage of some part of the machine, showing a structural weakness. With the strengthening of the parts and the improvement of the machine, as a result of lessons learned from accidents, with the development of the study of the air, its dangers and disturbances, the invention of a practical system of earth signals, and the laying out of proper landing places, safety in aerial travel will depend more and more on the human element, as it now does in a great measure with the automobile and other machines of man's invention. Paulhan, the French expert, declares that we shall have a flying machine safe enough for ordinary use by 1915. It may even come, he says, before the end of this year—1911; although this may seem too optimistic.

INVADING MANY FIELDS

Already the flying-machine is working its way into various fields of activity. An aerial post has been inaugurated in India, and Tom Sopwith attempted something of the same sort last month when he flew over New York Harbor to drop a package of letters on board the big new *Olympic*. He missed the mark,

and the letters dropped into the water; but that does not disprove the fact that the thing can and doubtless will be done. A bolt of silk has been delivered a distance of sixty miles by aeroplane. Social calls have been made through the air, and even game has been shot with the hunter a-wing! René Simon, circling and swooping in his machine, successfully herded cattle on the Texas plains, to the immense astonishment of the native cowboys,—and, final proof that the aeroplane has arrived, one has been placed on sale in a department store!

Rich as the past year has been in aerial achievement, the coming twelve months will doubtless see a still more general use of the aeroplane and more remarkable performances. The world-wide interest in flying, the thousands of amateurs active everywhere, the industry of inventors, the schools for flying springing up in every country, competition among manufacturers, governmental encouragement, the eagerness of nations to possess capable aerial fleets, and the large volume of literature—both books and magazines—devoted to aeronautics, all point to a rapidly increasing development of the sport and the business of flying.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

VIDART (WHO FINISHED THIRD) FLYING OVER LIEGE IN THE INTERNATIONAL CIRCUIT RACE



THE STORY HOUR AT PENNSYLVANIA STATE SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND

(Of these 32 children, 22 are needlessly blind as a result of ophthalmia neonatorum)

DOING AWAY WITH BLINDNESS

BY OLIVIA HOWARD DUNBAR

ONE-HALF the blindness in the world is unnecessary. This is a deliberately formed estimate, upon which competent authorities agree. Yet the average man of to-day regards blindness as an inevitable and devouring curse, to which, as to some insatiable Minotaur, a definite number of martyrs have regularly to be sacrificed. His attitude is, of course, a superstition, but it is a deeply imbedded one. To teach him that, on the contrary, blindness is preventable, and that he must himself be intelligently alert to prevent it, is the object of a movement that is firmly established in England and France and that is now spreading rapidly over our own country.

A case of tuberculosis is not now considered by the relatively unenlightened man as the deadly instrument of a purely malevolent fate. He knows that in many instances the disease may be cured and that in many more it may be prevented; and he has a fair notion of how prevention may be accomplished. But fifteen years ago he did not believe these things. The fact that he believes them now is due to the tremendously energetic work of enlightenment that has been carried on in the interval and that has itself

been the most important agency in checking the scourge.

PREVENTION VERSUS ALLEVIATION

A very similar undertaking, in method and importance, is the new movement for the prevention of blindness. The subject is so far rather obscure. It has not had time to seize the popular imagination and stir the popular conscience as it is sooner or later bound to do. The very phrase may well be mystifying to those who have never considered how blindness is caused, and who do not know that in a vast number of cases it proceeds from simple, understandable, every-day causes that may easily be remedied or done away with. To get at these causes and to spread the news of the remedies is therefore, it will be seen, an even more immediate and fundamental matter than to alleviate the condition of the blind themselves,—a work which probably makes a stronger appeal than any other to human compassion.

The appalling statistics in regard to the needlessly blind have for some time stood unquestioned. Yet so recently as four years ago no definite centralized effort had been

made in this country to remedy a situation so intolerable. The Committee on Prevention of Blindness of the American Medical Association, headed by Dr. F. Park Lewis of Buffalo, which is really responsible for the whole later movement, did, it is true, already exist,—and is still increasingly active. But since then organized work for the prevention of blindness has been established in nine States. Very recently a national society, the American Association for the Conservation of Vision, of which Dr. Lewis is president, has been formed, with the idea of simplifying the work of the various State organizations. Definite and striking results have followed in every quarter, and in particular upon the work of the pioneer committee, which has had its headquarters in New York.

The wonderful contagion of public service is very well illustrated by the quick spread of preventive work since this first committee¹ was organized in New York in June, 1908, with Miss Louise Lee Schuyler (who first conceived the work as a popular movement) as chairman. The committee promptly received the financial support of the Russell Sage Foundation, and took offices in the United Charities Building. It immediately began a campaign of publicity, including lectures and pamphlets, with the result that other States, roused and dismayed, began anxiously to inquire into their own conditions.

In the same year (1908), and perhaps as a direct sequence of the activities in New York, Ohio established a State Commission for the Blind, a part of whose duty was "in making inquiries concerning the cause of blindness, to learn what proportion of these cases are preventable, and to coöperate with the State Board of Health in adopting and enforcing preventive measures." In June, 1909, the Maryland Society for the Prevention of

Blindness, composed, like the New York committee, both of physicians and laymen, was organized in Baltimore. And in the same year the Massachusetts Commission for the Blind formed an Advisory Committee on Prevention of Blindness. Steady and fruitful energy has been put forth in these States, and in the meantime four others (Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, and California) have officially interested themselves in the work, though to a somewhat lesser extent. In May, 1910, the work was organized in Kentucky with a very special purpose, that of eradicating trachoma (a disease of the eye, sometimes leading to blindness) which among the mountain people, because of their wretched living conditions, amounts almost to a plague. Preventive work is also being done in Pennsylvania, although it is not yet organized.

How, then, is blindness to be prevented and what can organization accomplish?

SAVING BABIES' EYESIGHT

By all means the most prolific single cause of blindness is ophthalmia neonatorum, or "babies' sore eyes." This is an affliction that overtakes a child within a few days of birth and that is likely, unless a proper remedy is applied, to destroy the vision incurably within a short time. It appears, indeed, so early in life and runs its dreadful course so swiftly that many ignorant mothers are unaware of what has really taken place and believe firmly that their children were "born blind." The schools for the blind throughout the country shelter a large number of children thus catalogued, whereas in fact congenital blindness is known to be a very rare thing. These conjectural cases, together with the thousands definitely known to have suffered from ophthalmia neonatorum, form together a shocking total;—yet all these human beings might have been saved from their fate and the prevention is of sensational simplicity. All that is necessary is to place in the baby's eye at birth, as a precautionary measure, a single drop of a solution of silver nitrate. Should the disease manifest itself, prompt and skillful medical attention is imperative.

THE VALUE OF SILVER NITRATE

According to the famous discovery of Professor Credé, of Leipsic, this solution (physicians have since learned that certain derivatives of the silver salts may be substituted) has the miraculous effect of destroying the germ of the disease without injuring the tis-

¹The membership of the committee is as follows: Miss Louise Lee Schuyler, *chairman*, vice-president State Charities Aid Association; Hon. Eugene H. Porter, A.M., M.D., New York State Commissioner of Health; Hon. Thomas Darlington, M.D., former Commissioner of Health of New York City; Miss Martha Lincoln Draper, member Board of Education; Dr. J. Clifton Edgar, professor of obstetrics and clinical midwifery in Cornell University Medical College; Mrs. Edward R. Hewitt, chairman executive committee New York Association for the Blind; Dr. Ward A. Holden, instructor in ophthalmology, College of Physicians and Surgeons, consulting oculist to Roosevelt and Bellevue Hospitals; Miss Winifred Holt, secretary of the New York Association for the Blind; Dr. F. Park Lewis, chairman committee on Prevention of Blindness, American Medical Association; Mr. Thomas M. Mulry, president of Superior Council of New York, St. Vincent de Paul Society; Mrs. William B. Rice, vice-president State Charities Aid Association; Hon. P. Tecumseh Sherman, former Commissioner of Labor, State of New York; Miss Lillian D. Wald, head worker in the Henry Street Settlement (nurses' settlement); Miss Carolyn C. Van Blarcom, *executive secretary*, formerly assistant superintendent Johns Hopkins Hospital School for Nurses.

Communications, requests for information, pamphlets, etc., should be addressed to the executive secretary, at the office of the committee, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.



CHILDREN DOOMED TO A LIFETIME OF DARKNESS BECAUSE OF IGNORANCE AND NEGLECT
WHEN THEY WERE BORN

sue of the eye. So reliable is this measure that, as has been stated: "In 4000 births at the Sloane Maternity Hospital in New York, during a period of six years in which Credé's method was employed, not one case of ophthalmia developed." In New York State the Board of Health supplies free to physicians and midwives vials containing the required amount of the silver solution for one treatment, and a dropper with which to apply it. Moreover, any hospital or dispensary to which a baby thus afflicted might be taken would of course supply the necessary remedy. Yet babies still become needlessly blind, and in great numbers. Obviously, this is a case where official work is not enough. What is needed is a clear understanding of the situation, individually, by as many persons and within as short a time as possible.

TUBERCULOSIS AND TRACHOMA

Two other serious affections of the eye which may be checked by the right treatment but which are likely to lead to blindness if neglected, are ocular tuberculosis and trachoma. In order to prevent blindness, the important point is to diagnose either of these diseases early in their progress. Tuberculosis

of the eye is treated in the same way as tuberculosis of any other part of the body; mainly, that is to say, by fresh air and ample nourishment. The best and quickest methods of fighting trachoma are not yet perfectly developed; but to this end, the Prevention of Blindness Committee is now coöperating with New York City's Department of Health in its trachoma clinic.

INADEQUATE LIGHTING

Under investigation, also, are the cases of blindness resulting from progressive nearsightedness,—another matter where further public education is of immediate importance. A difficulty of this sort is of course advanced with great rapidity by wrong conditions, such as improper lighting, and the subject of lighting is therefore one upon which the Prevention of Blindness workers lay great stress. Safe and wise illumination is probably very rare in this land of oil and electricity. The poor have insufficient light, and the greater number of the well-to-do, whether at home or in public places, face the unshaded glare of electric bulbs with entire satisfaction. Conditions in many of the New York City public schools are notoriously bad in this respect, and

the children whose eyes are daily strained in the schoolroom probably fare very little better when they read or study at home. And this is not because proper conditions are difficult of attainment, but because the few simple rules that govern them are so generally ignored.

Even though eyes naturally strong may not suffer seriously from insufficient light, or from the unmodified glare of electricity, great care should be taken in conserving frail or imperfect vision or total blindness may result. Mr. E. L. Elliott, of the American Association for the Conservation of Vision, has remarked editorially in the *Illuminating Engineer*: "In the public schools of this city there are more than fifty schoolrooms in which artificial light has to be continuously used, and the light provided, at least in a large proportion of them, is of a kind that would disgrace the meanest tenement in the slums, and is totally unfit for continued use by any human being for any purpose, to say nothing of the close eye work of study by the sensitive eyes of children."

FREQUENT RISKS OF VISION

But the educational process has to be carried even farther than this. It has been found possible to rouse persons to a concern for their vision who would afterwards casually equip themselves with "department-store glasses." Buying eyeglasses in this haphazard fashion is a favorite economy of the ignorant, and one that they can by no means easily be persuaded to abandon.

Yet the injuries to their vision for which the less fortunate classes are themselves responsible, as in this case, are of course slight in comparison with those that social and economic conditions inflict upon them. Among the large number of "dangerous occupations" is a special group involving great risk to the eyes. Accidents to the eye from the spattering of molten metal, or from flying particles of steel, emery, stone or mica, are of course very common and result in impaired vision where they do not bring about total blindness. The human aspect of such disasters, where the sufferers are workmen who cannot lightly turn to another trade, who very often, if they are entirely blinded, can afterwards do nothing whatever, and who are practically certain to have dependent families—is always heartbreaking.

A worker for the Prevention of Blindness came recently upon the case of a pitiful weatherbeaten man of about sixty who spent his days peddling small trifles on the upper East Side of New York City. He was totally

blind and helpless, but he contrived to live without any charitable aid, from the few dollars a week that his peddling brought him. This man had started out in life as a steel worker. In a not uncommon accident, one eye became injured. The eye was neglected, so that the other one became affected and in a short time he was entirely blind. The catastrophe had ruined the man's life but it did not destroy his courage. He could not reconcile himself to the passive part of an inmate in an institution for the blind and has ever since contrived his own meager support.

SAFETY DEVICES

But the situation of workmen thus menaced is not a hopeless one. Miscellaneous safety appliances have been invented and in certain mills and factories are in use. Goggles and wire masks are among the more obvious of these devices, which also include screens and shields of various sorts as well as improved tools. The American Steel and Wire Company avoids accidents from emery wheels by equipping each wheel with a steel hood and a plate-glass shield. The United States Steel Corporation, by a widespread adoption of appliances, states that it has reduced accidents to its workmen by more than 50 per cent. As the employers' sense of responsibility is already alive, a general adoption of such preventive measures should not be long delayed. The New York Committee on the Prevention of Blindness has lately been active in collecting and installing an exhibit of safety devices in the Museum of Safety on West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.

THE DEADLY WOOD ALCOHOL

Finally, there are being considered the great dangers to vision resulting from the use of wood alcohol. That these are not imaginary dangers is tragically shown by a case personally known to the committee. On his way to work one day a young man met an acquaintance who commented sympathetically on his severe cold and urged a drink of whiskey as a remedy. The young man happened to know very little of alcoholic drinks, but agreed to follow his friend's advice, and, going into a saloon with him, accepted a drink that certain saloonkeepers are said to dispense under the name of "white whiskey." The drink being almost wholly composed of wood alcohol, the young man's eyes were immediately affected, and before the day was passed he had lost his eyesight irremediably.

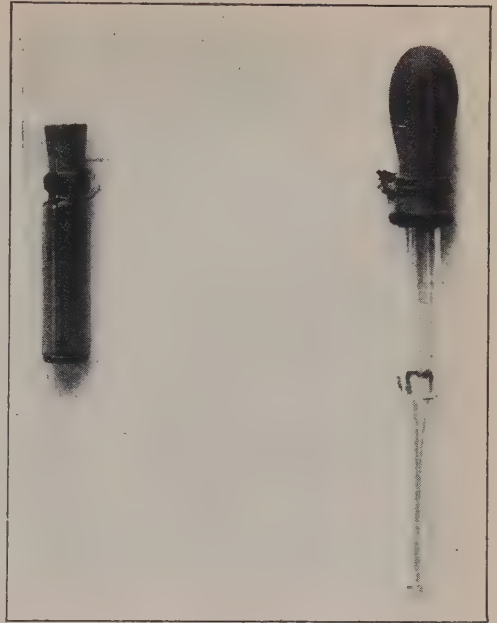
Even the fumes of this liquid are dangerous to the eyes in a definite, though lesser, degree, and blindness often occurs among the workers on feathers and on artificial flowers, because of the wood alcohol used in the dyes. So that means of protecting this class of workers, who have probably no knowledge of the risks they run, are also being considered.

THE NEW YORK COMMITTEE'S PROGRAM

The work of all the prevention of blindness committees has, therefore, to be of a widely miscellaneous character. The New York committee has from the first secured a large audience for its teachings by a punctilious attention to its correspondence and by frequent issuing of pamphlets. Lectures on the main phases of the question, which are for the most part delivered by Miss Van Blarcom, the executive secretary, are constantly in demand both in the city and throughout the State. In addition to this educational work, the committee conducts a first-hand investigation of the causes of blindness and their remedies. It is also vigilant in the matter of legislation.

Happily, it is not too early in the history of the undertaking to point to certain very tangible results. Three important legislative triumphs have been won, with the coöperation of the State Commissioner of Health. One of these is the matter of early birth returns. The law now provides that every birth in New York State must be reported within thirty-six hours (excepting in five cities which are at present exempt by law). Most States still allow a margin of ten days or more. The second is that every birth certificate must now include the questions: "Did you employ a preventive for ophthalmia neonatorum? If not, why not?" These regulations are based on the belief that thirty-six hours after birth is not too late for the Board of Health to intervene and save a child's sight, should the disease be present and no preventive measures have been taken. And, third, an appropriation of \$5000 has been secured from the Legislature for three successive years for the purpose of providing the free distribution of the vials of silver nitrate with the accompanying droppers. It is considered very encouraging that the demand for this prophylactic has so increased during the two years that it has been found necessary to open an entire new department to provide adequately for its distribution.

Furthermore, not many weeks ago, Dr. John Winters Brannan, president of the board of directors of Bellevue and Allied



VIAL OF SILVER NITRATE, AND DROPPER, SUPPLIED BY THE NEW YORK BOARD OF HEALTH TO PHYSICIANS AND MIDWIVES FOR THE TREATMENT OF "BABIES' SORE EYES"

Hospitals, announced to those interested that within a few months a school for the training of midwives, the first in this country, would be established in connection with Bellevue Hospital. The significance of this is considerable, for there is obviously the closest possible connection between the midwife question and that of the prevention of blindness in babies. As the *Survey* has put it, about one-half the children born in large cities are delivered by midwives and about one-third the cases of preventable blindness are due to ophthalmia neonatorum. To recognize the dangerous condition of a baby's eyes, to apply the remedy without exceeding the proper quantity, and to report the whole matter to the Board of Health, is plainly too great a responsibility for an untrained and illiterate woman to discharge; particularly as competent investigation within the past few years has shown that many midwives in New York as well as in other large cities are not prepared for their work, are not conscientious, and are not even clean.

THE TRAINING OF MIDWIVES

This situation has been apparent for some time without provoking anything more useful than debate. At last the workers for the prevention of blindness began to urge that since

the institution of the midwife was not in itself a curse, inasmuch as in foreign cities, with careful training and supervision, it worked out well; and since the families of the poor would be obliged to employ these women in any case, because of the lesser cost of their services,—the only course was to train them and raise their standard. And Dr. Brannan's plan is, as he himself concedes, a direct result of the committee's persuasive advocacy.

The idea is not to discourage applicants at first by presenting too long and elaborate a course of instruction, three months being suggested as the minimum and six months as the maximum. Only a nominal fee will be required. Women speaking any language will be admitted and will be taught in their own language. After completing the course, the graduates will be supervised at intervals, to see that they keep rigidly up to the standard that has been set them.

This scheme in itself will involve an important social reformation, but the workers for the prevention of blindness insist that the matter should not stop here. They are therefore working actively to bring about legislation which shall gradually limit the practice of midwifery to regularly schooled and graduated women.

A MATTER OF VITAL PUBLIC INTEREST

But investigators in the various States agree that not all the burden of infantile blindness should be borne by midwives, whatever their shortcomings. A large number of physicians are on their own admission equally responsible, and there is frequent mysterious negligence on the part of local boards of health.

The briefest outline should make it apparent that it is a matter of the most vital public concern to know how preventive measures, in all these directions, may be carried out. Parents, schoolchildren, laborers, are those to be most loudly warned, but there is no class so secure and protected as to be untouched by this danger. And even if the knowledge that there is preventable blindness should fail to move the public heart, the question would have a no less direct concern with the public pocket. Cases are rare where a blind person can contribute to the public welfare, can make, that is, any equivalent for his support. The cost of his education and maintenance represents, therefore, an undiminished outlay. In every sense, therefore, a country cannot afford to admit that it allows unnecessary blindness.



SCENE AT THE NEW YORK STATE SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND, BATAVIA, N. Y.

(It is stated that 34 per cent. of the pupils are needlessly blind)



A BEAUTIFUL SKY-LINE DRIVE

(A magnificent piece of work, built by convicts near Cañon City, Colorado. May be used en route to top of Royal Gorge)

NEW SCENIC HIGHWAYS IN THE SOUTHWEST

BY AGNES C. LAUT

BUT ten years ago, the highest percentage of bad roads—roads of a badness almost impassable—was in the Southeast and Southwest. This is no longer true. From being a fad, good roads have become in the Southwest a public passion on which all men are united, irrespective of party, and on which some of the smaller counties threaten almost to bankrupt themselves. The bicycle was, perhaps, the first evangelist of the new movement. Then came the motor. In a land of no winter and little rain and almost perpetual sunshine and tremendous distances off the line of the railroad, the motor became almost a daily necessity. The railroads necessarily follow the easiest grades; and easiest grades in the Southwest mean the desert region. The ranches, the heavy timber open and upland, like German parks, the noble land, the scenic grandeur—all lay more or less back off the beaten highway.

For instance, to go to the Cliff Dwellings of the Jemez by team, takes the better part of a hard day's driving and necessitates rising at four and six. By motor, you can leave at

nine, be out in time for lunch at the ranch house, and be back by sundown. The same may be said of the wonderful sulphur springs of Northern New Mexico, the game resorts of the White Mountains, Arizona, and the best scenery of the Grand Canyon.

Then came the influence of the tourist; and that clinched the evangelism of good roads as far as the Southwest was concerned. California suddenly realized that the tourist traffic yearly left her \$10,000,000 to the good. San Joaquin County alone in 1910 issued bonds for nearly \$2,000,000 for road improvement; and the whole State of California put the stamp of public approval on a plan to issue \$18,000,000 of State bonds. Colorado has just voted \$10,000,000 of bonds for the improvement of public highways.

The contagion has spread—not gradually but like wildfire—to Arizona and New Mexico and Colorado and Texas and Wyoming. If France and Italy can attract 300,000 American tourists a year by sunny skies and good roads and old ruins, why not New Mexico and Arizona and Colorado, which have just



COMPLETED AND PROJECTED ROADS CONNECTING NATIONAL FORESTS IN THE WEST

as sunny skies and higher altitude and clearer, cooler air, with ruins older than anything in Europe or Egypt, according to Archæology, by 8000 years?

The Good Roads Association of Oklahoma, Texas, Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana had already been organized in 1909, when Mr. Yoakum took his Farmer's Union representatives east to see examples of good road

building. Incidentally, it may be asked—What is the railway's interest in good roads? Will not good roads gridironing the Southwest in every direction decrease passenger and freight traffic? For instance, some friends of mine the other day made quicker, easier time through a more picturesque country than the railroad traverses, by motor from Albuquerque to Santa Fé, than I made by train. Won't



THE SCENIC HIGHWAY FROM SANTA FÉ, ENTERING PECOS

the public highways evangel work against railroad totals in the long run? Quite the contrary, when you examine the facts of the case. Nothing ever helped the cause of good roads more than the frightful glut of crops in 1907. Why was there a glut? Because the farmers were rushing their crops to market *before* the fall rains, while the roads were good. If roads had been guaranteed good all the year round, the farmers could have held back crops for better prices, and the big traffic would have been distributed over all the year and railroad men would not have been so worked off their feet that they literally could not afford to dismiss incompetents. Self interest, and not philanthropy, is the primary motive behind the railroads backing the good roads movement in the Southwest.

But the Farmers Union was not enough for the Southwest. The States of Texas, New Mexico, Colorado, and Wyoming came together in a scheme to construct a great scenic highway—a *Camino Real*, or Royal Road—that would not only act as a great trunk line, such as they have in France and Italy, but would traverse the most beautiful scenery in

America, much of it above cloud line, hundreds of miles through the yellow pine forests, hundreds of miles close to snow line, side spurs running to hunting and fishing resorts, all of it serving the practical purposes of transportation for the ranches and towns along its line. At the present writing, all of a thousand miles of this splendid *Camino Real* are completed. With the exception of a slight gap south of Albuquerque, you can now motor from Cheyenne, Wyoming, to El Paso, Texas. Take a look at the map! The distance is as great as from New York to Old Point Comfort, or from New York to Chicago.

Take another look at the map and note the territory traversed! Denver, Colorado Springs, the Garden of the Gods, Raton Pass, Las Vegas, Santa Fé, the quaintest and most picturesque bit of the Old World set down in the New, over La Bajado Hill, where the kingdoms of the world literally lie at your feet and on down the Rio Grandé, where you might be traveling in Southern Spain if it were not for the American signs intermingled with Spanish, then across the line into Texas, where another set of spurs and trunk lines are

designed to carry you on down to the Gulf. From this main trunk line, several side spurs have already been built to places of wonderful beauty and game in plenty.

For instance, from either Las Vegas or Santa Fé, you can strike across the backbone of the Rockies, above the cloudline at 10,000 feet, close to four feet of snow, into the Sangre de Christo Canyon, where you may shoot a bear if you want to, or up the Pecos where you can camp and fish, or up the Jemez, where you can take up your camp quarters in one of the caves of the prehistoric cliff dwellers. Have no fear! Those plastered stucco caves are a good deal cleaner than the pueblos of these cliff folks' descendants. These side spurs are not yet complete. For instance, there is a break of some twenty to thirty miles between Las Vegas and Santa Fé, which the good roads propagandists are looking to the National Forest Service to complete; and of the forty miles out to the Canyons of the Cliff Dwellers, there are three miles of a gap, which should be completed at once. You can get over it if you take a pick and a shovel. The wheel way is all right. It is the gypsum center that may stick up and

rip your car bottom. Down at Silver City a side spur now takes you up a cloud-crested declivity, of a grandeur and daring to put Napoleon's famed Alpine highway to the blush; and in Colorado, you can now follow the Royal Gorge by motor, 1000 feet straight up, as arrow flight from the stream bed.

It sounds but commonplace to tell you this beautiful *Camino Real* leads past forested parkway and game-haunted canyon and snowy summit. Picture to yourself a thirty-mile stretch of stately yellow pine, clear of underbrush, high above the sun-baked plains, with glints of trout pools in cascade and rapid, and glimpses of snowy heights where the canyons narrow to the crested snow ridges; and picture to yourself mile on mile of hunting lodge and tent camp—places where you can get quarters for from \$1 a month to \$2 a day and fish so many trout you'll never need to lie again, and kill a bear if your pleasure runs to bear killing! Or else picture to yourself a yellow tuff and pumice cliff from 600 to 1000 feet high in a canyon so narrow you can shout across it, the face of the rock pitted, carved, cut in port hole and arch and cave door—a cliff dweller's canyon along the scenic high-



ONE OF THE VALLEYS EN ROUTE TO TOP OF ROYAL GORGE. PIKE'S PEAK IN THE DISTANCE



VISITORS LOOKING INTO ROYAL GORGE FROM THE SUMMIT

way! Or if your taste wanders to the picturesque and the artistic and the historic—stop off at old Santa Fé! You will see a mosaic in color, a mosaic in age, a mosaic in races! You will see the palace where have ruled eighty Governors, and the Fonda, or the end of the old stage coach Santa Fé trail, where Stephen B. Elkins came in raw-hide boots, penniless behind an ox team. Or, if like the bear-hunting holiday seekers, your taste runs to ancient gore, you can go out to the ruins of the old garetta and see remnants of walls where clots of hair were found

round bullets embedded in plaster. As to old churches—well—go to San Miguel and get Brother David talking and rapping the oldest bronze bell in America (they don't ring bells by clapper in New Mexico; they hit the bell like a gong) and see what Brother David says about Florida's claims to antiquity. Or ride out to La Bajada Hill from Santa Fé—here is a grade broad as Broadway, New York, up one side of a wall high as the Metropolitan Tower, a rise of 8 to 100 feet! That grade, one of the steepest in America, cost only \$5000 a mile, using native cement for the



THIS BROAD SCENIC HIGHWAY RUNS FOR 1000 MILES FROM WYOMING TO TEXAS

stone work. Ordinarily, this great *Camino Real* has cost only from \$500 to \$1000 a mile.

Compare that to the cost of road building in the East, \$1 to \$3000 for easy grade, \$5 to \$15,000 a mile for mountain and cut-out sections; and you have food for other reflections than those on scenery and holiday. Why is the West, where the price of labor is incomparably higher than in the East, building its roads so much cheaper? For a dozen or more reasons:

First of all, there is that quality of community interest or pulling together with enthusiasm. Every man-jack in the West is so jumping keen to have good roads at any cost, that he is willing to spade them himself, or pay a poll tax of \$3 a head, or vote for \$18,000,000 of State bonds, as California has just done. All you can be sure of in the East, when you launch a good roads evangel, is a strong pull on the back tug. This man "won't move his fence." and that woman is



CONVICTS EMPLOYED ON THE GREAT SCENIC HIGHWAY, NEW MEXICO



"THE BOULEVARD," NEAR LEADVILLE, COLORADO. PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN LAST WINTER
(Showing Mt. Massive, highest peak in the State, altitude 14,424 feet)

"goin' t' law" over her slab stone steps removed, and that corner-grocery-store-apple-barrel umpire of national events reports that "Jidge So-an'-So said thus and thus agin' it." Out West, they haven't time for mouthing over apple-barrel-politics and petty graft. They are too busy building roads.

In the second place the West builds its own roads; the East lets contracts on which there must be profit to the contractor and very often an illicit rake-off to the petty politician.

The East avers that the Southwest can build cheaper because it has little rain and less snow. That is true; but when the rain does come, it comes in the form of a washout; and the grades are so much higher in the West—for instance one part of the Scenic Highway goes up 10,000 feet—that about equalizes the case of rain and snow in the East.

But most important of all in the cause of the great difference in cost of good roads East and West is the factor of convict labor. The Southwest has been successful as the Southeast in the use of convict labor on public highways. Where New York is paying Italian road builders from \$1.75 to \$2.50 a

day, and the contractor must make his profit over and above that—New Mexico employs convicts at a cost including guards, food, shelter, of only 35 cents a day; 125 convicts are to-day so employed; and where the grade is easy, the cost per mile has been as low as \$100. To be sure, the Territorial engineer, Mr. Miller, who superintends active construction prefers paid labor. So would any one; but the fact remains but for convict labor, the West would not be making such progress in good roads.

Take another look at the *Camino Real* on the map! Northwest of the Union Pacific and the Chicago & Northwestern, you come to graded roads again in the Yellowstone Park. From the Yellowstone, you can follow a fairly good grade road to Missoula. Your highway now constitutes the good halfway segment of a circle. Now go west of El Paso and you can get up to Silver City; but from Silver City there is tribulation through the White Mountains of Arizona till you reach Phoenix or Flagstaff or Prescott. Here, then, is a blank. When you reach the rim of Grand Canyon, the Santa Fé is constructing a magnificent graded scenic highway along

the margin of the great cliffs at a cost of \$8000 a mile, the road to revert to the possession of the Federal Government. From Western Arizona to California, motors have been known to make quicker time than the two trans-continental railroads. Once in California, you are in a good-roads paradise. You can go south to San Diego, where they are preparing a world celebration of Panama; or you can go north almost to the bounds of Oregon. Here again is another blank space for motors till you come to Eugene, but from Eugene, your motor will carry you safely either to Seattle or Spokane.

Look now at your map! With the exception of four unimproved intervals, your good-roads tour has circumscribed all the national parks, all the national forests, all the best to be seen of the Rocky Mountains in a Good Roads Circle of 10,000 miles. That Good Roads Circle of 10,000 miles is the day dream and night vision of every man in the Geological Survey and the Forest Service. Practically every foot of the way is known and surveyed. There is not a serious engineering difficulty in the whole circle. Already, the Forest Service turns over to the counties in which the National Forests lie, one-fourth of all proceeds for road building; but too often, this fund is lost to public view and knowledge after it is turned over to local authorities—lost in that Serbonian Bog colloquially known as a political "slush fund." But if the Forest money were turned into the road building,

for which it is intended, and the Forestry and the Geological Survey and the States Governments and the motor companies get together in united effort, wouldn't there be something else to celebrate than the finishing of Panama? Couldn't the next World's Fair celebrate the completion of one of the greatest scenic highways known in the world, the Appian Way of America? That is the question the Southwest is asking itself to-day.

And the enthusiasm isn't all vaporizing off in questions. Early in April, Mr. Westgard, of the United States Public Roads Bureau set out with a heavy truck to blaze a "Sunset Trail" through the White Mountains of Arizona and set up metal signs to guide future motor explorations. It was a notable and adventurous piece of pathfinding, too long to be given here. Between Albuquerque and Magdalena, sand held the car seven days in 147 miles. In places, sand was so heavy, the car took refuge on railroad tracks and bumped along over the ties. Where the continental divide was crossed at 10,400 feet, heavy snows gave the seven-ton truck the fight of its life; but it came through alive though it made only three-quarters of a mile in the twelve hours of Easter Sunday. Beyond Fort Apache, officers sent mule teams out to pilot the big car across the turbulent snow swollen waters of Black River; but the point is—the White Mountains were crossed by the big truck; and this is the way the Southwest is blazing the trail for good roads.



OUTSIDE FENCE PROTECTION ON A SPECIALLY STEEP HILL



ONE OF ROCHESTER'S PUBLIC SCHOOL ROOMS AS USED FOR COMMUNITY GATHERINGS

OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS SOCIAL CENTERS

BY MARY JOSEPHINE MAYER

NOT many years ago we closed our school-house doors at four o'clock, and allowed them to remain closed on Saturdays, Sundays, and during the summer vacation. In other words, an immense amount of valuable property belonging to the people, and needed by the people, was put to only half of its possible use. Now we are changing all that; we have waked up to the fact that the schools may and should be a common meeting ground, and the movement for a wider use of the school plant is spreading over the country. At present, in more than one hundred cities of the United States, school buildings and property are being systematically used to further the social life of the people.

The root of the movement lies deep down in the growing realization that those upon whom falls the heat and burden of the day have a right to more than mere existence. The toilers of the world have been for centuries creatures of the blind necessity of economic laws, but in this era the "laissez-faire" policy is dead and buried. We must give our workers the chance to live; and not the least of the

needs of this many-sided business—living—is that of some legitimate form of play. The man who feels no joy in the passing day is only partially alive, and lowered vitality means lowered value as a social factor. The boy who has no chance to play becomes either dull or vicious.

THE PLAYGROUND VERSUS THE PRISON

One of the first duties of a city, we now believe, is to give to its boys and girls, the future citizens who are to make or mar the community, a place for wholesome play. This is not an easy task to perform in New York. The great army of wage-earners are herded together, two or three to the room, in small flats and tenements, where home life is a physical impossibility. Where shall our boys and girls go after school hours—where but the streets? And it is more than a twice-told tale, this of the children of the streets who become the toughs of the "gang," the girls of the dance-halls. Districts where home life is eliminated and wholesome recreation un-

provided are breeding-grounds for reformatories and prisons. And to look at the matter from the standpoint of the hard-headed taxpayer, prisons and reformatories cost more than playgrounds.

Realizing this fact, the New York Board of Education is pursuing an enlightened policy by which the schoolhouses are increasingly used to meet the play needs of their several districts. During the summer months, vacation schools and playgrounds give the children manual training and organized recreation in exchange for the demoralizing influences of the streets. And at night thirteen school roofs are thronged with boys and girls who mount from the stifling streets into the cool upper air for games, songs, and dances. But the possibilities of our schoolhouse roofs have been barely tested—a much wider use should be made of them in the future.

These summer activities are not distinctive of New York. In most of our cities school playgrounds are now opened during two of the summer months. In Rochester some of them are used all the year round,—one on Sundays as well as week days,—and in Buffalo organized play goes on from May to November. The playgrounds of Chicago are deservedly famous; those of Newark, N. J., are admir-

ably administered by an unusually large force of play directors—and so the list might be indefinitely extended.

NEW YORK'S RECREATION CENTERS

It is in one aspect of its winter work that New York has surpassed our other cities—namely, in the efficient organization of evening recreation centers for boys and girls over fourteen years of age. During the past winter the doors of thirty-eight schools have been opened for this purpose. Each center has its own problem to face, determined not only by local conditions, but by racial peculiarities. The Irishman, the Italian, and the Jew respond to different appeals; and although the centers are run, broadly, along certain lines, they display many shades of local color. In view of the important work that they are doing it seems worth while to consider some of these centers in detail.

Recreation Center No. 158, at Avenue A and 78th Street, lies in what was once the Bohemian quarter. Now, however, Irish, Italians, and Jews are creeping in and only about 10 per cent. of those who frequent the center are Bohemian; about 20 per cent. are Jewish, and the rest mainly Irish-American.



A RUNNING CONTEST AT AN EVENING RECREATION CENTER, HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, MANHATTAN, NEW YORK CITY



A ROCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL GYMNASIUM USED BY THE WOMEN OF THE CITY AS A RECREATION CENTER

The average nightly attendance is from 400 to 450 boys and men.

This school was first opened in the evening a few years ago for girls, but the neighborhood was then so bad that the better class of young women would not come. Then it was resolved to turn it into a boys' and men's center, and the experiment has been abundantly justified. Social settlements in the neighborhood take care of the girls, but they are viewed with something like suspicion by the boys of the district.

"The fact is," explained the club worker, "a place supported by private philanthropy, however well conducted, would, to our boys, have an air of charity, and that they are too independent to suffer. The mere fact that a person comes to their district, without any apparent reason, to help them, implies, in their eyes, that he thinks himself better than they are. Now it is not pleasant to feel that you need help—that you present a social problem to be solved. But a center run by the city, with a paid corps of teachers, has no more air of charity than the Water Department. It is part of the government, like the day schools, and there can, therefore, be a better understanding between the persons in charge and the more independent class of boys."

These words—"understanding between the persons in charge and the boys"—largely explain the success of Center No. 158. These boys go there for recreation, and within proper bounds, they are allowed to do as they like; drills and literary clubs are not forced upon them, but they are made to feel that some one is always there to give them advice and sympathy. The personality of the directors, in fact, is one of the most important factors in this question of public play.

The main scene of activity is, of course, the gymnasium. Go there any evening and see a gay crowd of boys and men—who in the old days would probably have been playing craps or making mischief with their gang—absorbed in vaulting, basket-ball, and other physical exercises. Adjoining the gymnasium, and equally well filled, is a large room for reading and quiet games. The problem of discipline has been reduced to the minimum, for it is well understood that "tough" behavior means exclusion from the center.

The older boys have organized fourteen flourishing clubs, of which two are literary, the rest social or athletic. These meet in the school-rooms upstairs. Under the unobtrusive tutelage of the club director, the boys have learned the rules of parliamentary pro-

cedure, and their meetings are conducted with order and dignity. A certain standard of honor is rigorously enforced. For instance, one boy who had served a term in the penitentiary was admitted to an athletic club, but not allowed to wear the club colors until he had "made good."

It must be borne in mind that some of these young men drive trucks or shovel coal all day; most of them live in crowded tenements. To many of them the sole relief from dulling routine is the recreation center. It has shown them that pleasure can be wholesome. It has given them the example of a paid body of workers who do not labor solely for their hire. It has taught them, through intelligent organization for amusement, to consider the rights and wishes of others. In short, it is helping to change a potentially dangerous element into a social force. That the neighborhood is no longer the "tough" quarter of a few years ago is due to a variety of causes, but there can be no doubt that the recreation center has played a large part in the change for the better.

The environment of school No. 172, on 108th Street, east of Second Avenue, furnishes one of those sudden changes that make of New York, under its dull architectural same-

ness, a very kaleidoscope of local color. Here is a Little Italy, with all its transplanted feuds intensified by the close proximities of a congested district. The gang spirit is rife, and Calabria, Naples, and Sicily wage their vendettas with a spirit worthy of the medieval Italian republics.

It is no easy task to evolve out of such a chaos of prejudice some degree of social solidarity; yet this is precisely what the recreation center has done. Play—or rather fair play—is the best solvent of antagonisms. In the gymnasiums the gang vendettas transform themselves into wholesome rivalry. Quarrels become less frequent when it is once understood that fighting means being turned out. Members of clubs are given special gymnasium privileges, and gradually out of the gang spirit is evolved the club spirit.

When one considers the difficulty of organizing into clubs these combative Southern Italian immigrants, some of the results obtained here seem astonishing. One club started a few years ago with a membership of six. The director encouraged them to visit museums and historic sites in New York, and to take tramps in the country. Gradually their horizon widened; they realized that there was a world outside of Little Italy. Their club



ONE OF NEW YORK'S RECREATION CENTERS,—BATH AT THE HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, MANHATTAN



FOLK DANCE AT AN EVENING RECREATION CENTER IN NEW YORK CITY

now numbers 400 members and has a club house of its own. Its motto is—"For the betterment of the Italian race in America," and only those are eligible for membership who are attending evening high school or, if graduates, are pursuing some method of self-education. These boys have long since left the center, but others are learning after them the lessons of fair play.

At School No. 171, on 103d Street, near Fifth Avenue, the scene shifts again, for this is a Jewish quarter. The recreation center here is for girls, and its average nightly at-

tendance is about 275. The visitor first enters a large oblong room at one end of which tennis is being played, while at the other groups of girls are gathered around tables, reading or playing checkers or card games. Beyond the folding doors is the gymnasium, where more young women are practising folk-dances or playing basket-ball. Upstairs one club is rehearsing a play; in another room a club of young men and women who come here once a week for social intercourse are holding a business meeting. At half-past nine the gymnasium and game rooms are



MIXED CLASS AT AN EVENING RECREATION CENTER, PUBLIC SCHOOL 63, MANHATTAN, NEW YORK CITY

(A tel-electric piano player is used)

thrown into one, and there is general dancing until ten, when the center closes. Every Tuesday evening the girls give a dance to their boy friends. These boys must previously have been presented to the principal of the center, and only those with a good record are admitted.

Think what a place like this means to girls who go home at night from the shop or factory to a crowded tenement,—who have no social life but that afforded by moving picture shows, street corners, and dance halls. Surely this recreation center is doing no small good to the city in building up mentally, morally, and physically the future mothers of its citizens.

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PLAY

These are some of the practical ways in which organized recreation is making for the welfare of the community. One who has made a study of municipal playgrounds has defined the social significance of play in the following words:

It seems a far cry from the ideal of fair play in boys' games to the ideal of fair play in the political life of our democracy; yet it can be demonstrated that the ideals of fair play and team play are important in forming the character of a community. In the game of the street every boy is for himself. Victory belongs to the shrewd, the crafty, the strong. Team games of the playground require the

submission of the individual will to the welfare of the team. Rigid rules inculcate fair play. A boy has the option of obeying the rules or not playing at all. New standards are set up; standards of self-control, of helping the other fellow, of fighting shoulder to shoulder for the honor of the team, of defeat preferable to unfair victory. These standards when translated into the language of political life we call self-government, respect for the law, social service, and good citizenship.

WHAT ONE CITY HAS DONE

One direct result of a widespread awakening in the city of Rochester to the requirements of good citizenship is the organization of social centers for adults. Mr. Edward J. Ward, now head of the Social Center Development of the University of Wisconsin, was the organizer and inspirer of what has now assumed the proportions of a large popular movement in Rochester,—where they sing the following ditty:

There once was a schoolhouse, a great mental tool house,

Was shut every night in the year,
'Till the people who hovered around it discovered
That this was a folly too dear.

Said they, "If 'tis ours, then we have the powers
To use it whenever we will."

So 'twas opened at night, and to-day with delight
You can hear them a-shouting their fill.

The Rochester Board of Education has equipped three of the schoolhouses with gymnasiums, shower baths, traveling libraries,



EVENING RECREATION CENTER AT ONE OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOLS



FORTNIGHTLY MUSICAL CLUB, MEETING IN ONE OF THE CLEVELAND SCHOOLHOUSES

chairs, tables, and dishes. Men hold athletic gatherings, and women fence in the gymnasiums; and men's and women's clubs meet in the schoolhouses for lectures, debates, dances, songs, or a general social evening which includes all of these features. But the central idea of the Rochester scheme is thus defined by Mr. Ward:

The first thing, the fundamental thing, in the movement for the wider use of school buildings, in the American spirit, is their gratuitous use for the free examination and discussion of public questions. It is no exaggeration to say that in making the schoolhouse the forum of the people, lies the chief hope of perpetuating the republic and of perfecting its institutions.

In pursuance of this idea, men and women in Rochester have organized civic clubs for the discussion of all questions relating to the welfare of the city, and they are using the schools as neighborhood civic club houses. Here citizens of every shade of social, political and religious opinion meet for discussion on common ground. "We can disagree agreeably," is one of their mottoes. The popular enthusiasm for these gatherings is shown by

the fact that when, last year, the Board of Education cut down the appropriation for social centers, every director, gymnasium instructor, librarian, doorkeeper, and club director, volunteered to finish the season without pay.

THE WORK OF VOLUNTEER LEAGUES

The example of Rochester in using the schools to further a more intelligent and efficient public spirit is followed in other cities. It was preceded, in fact, by that of the Home and School League of Philadelphia, composed of parents and teachers who meet in fifty schoolhouses for lectures, entertainments, and the discussion of educational problems. And the Boston Home and School Association is using twenty-two schools for similar purposes. The Milwaukee Association for Public Play and Social Education, formed in the fall of 1910, has met with enthusiastic coöperation on the part of the people. To mention only a few of its activities, the association has given motion picture shows in ten schools, organized holiday festivals and public



A NEIGHBORHOOD CIVIC CLUB MEETING IN A MILWAUKEE SCHOOLHOUSE

(Here the city budget was presented, with charts and explanations, and discussed by the taxpayers)

dances, is planning a system of branch public libraries in the schools, and has obtained the services of 75 leading men and women of Milwaukee, representing many shades of opinion, as speakers before neighborhood civic clubs.

It is impossible within the limits of a brief article to touch upon the many sides of this wider use of the school plant. Mention can only be made in passing of the important

work of the New York evening schools, and of the extensive and thorough course of public lectures carried on by the Board of Education. These lectures, held largely but not entirely in the schoolhouses, and dealing with a wide variety of subjects, form a veritable people's university. And in many other cities school extension committees are experimenting with different phases of a movement that seems capable of indefinite expansion.



WOMEN'S LITERARY CLUB AT ONE OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOL RECREATION CENTERS

DEMOCRATS IN CONGRESS MAKING GOOD

BY SCOTT BONE

A DEMOCRAT of national prominence, who has acted as guide, philosopher and friend of his party for wellnigh four decades, spent two weeks in Washington in December, conferring with lawmakers upon whom the mantle of authority and responsibility had suddenly fallen.

Were they equal to their opportunity?

Would they make good?

He came with misgivings. He departed more than a doubting Thomas.

His conclusion was that they would make a mess of things political and destroy their chances of winning the Presidency in 1912.

"I am loath to say it," he remarked, "but I find the Democratic leaders of the House children in statesmanship, unequal to the constructive work which they must undertake. The tariff problems are beyond them; their differences of opinion as to schedules appear irreconcilable; the party lacks cohesion and unity, and I can see only trouble ahead."

He had words of praise for Champ Clark, the Speaker-elect; eulogized Underwood, of Alabama, as a bright and promising young man; Henry of Texas, as another clean-cut, capable product of the South; Fitzgerald and Sulzer of New York, as ready and resourceful in debate, and spoke of the personnel of the majority as quite up to the average in intelligence and ability. But, with a lack of grasp of economic, industrial and financial questions, the newly created majority was doomed, he reluctantly felt, to divide and fall short of the country's expectations.

There was a disposition, he also discovered, to play politics rather than practice statesmanship.

Ollie James, the irrepressible Kentuckian, had publicly avowed that the primary purpose of the majority would be to put the Taft party "deeper in the hole."

Moreover, the shadow of Bryan and Bryanism was over all.

A contingent of Democrats, small but potent for mischief, would forever be seeking to vindicate and justify the Nebraskan's yagaries. Small wonder, then, that this distinguished Democrat, hopeful of harmony and giving freely of good counsel, after his

fortnight's visit, looked through the political glass darkly.

Before leaving Washington, he was invited to luncheon at the White House. His acquaintance with the President was formal, and, for the first time, he now met him at close range, elbow to elbow. Within ten minutes they were *en rapport*. He found the President a likeable man—a most likeable man—undissembling, artlessly outspoken, charmingly cordial and delightfully unaffected.

The newspapers at the moment were full of Congressional politics and reports of party maneuverings. Mr. Taft, however, was undisturbed by these things. His mind was obviously concentrated upon his public duties. He waxed eloquent about the progress of the work upon the Panama Canal and took his visitor to view a large map in a White House corridor, showing details of everything connected with Colonel Goethals' gigantic labors. Standing before it, the President's enthusiasm grew and imparted itself to his guest.

"Do you know," said this distinguished Democrat subsequently, "that I go away half reconciled to four years more of Taft? He impresses me as a man who is doing his level best to serve his country. He may not be doing it picturesquely, or tactfully, but he is doing it honestly and patriotically, and I do not hesitate, though a Democrat, to say that he deserves well at the hands of his countrymen."

The pessimistic view of Democratic prospects formed six months ago by a Democrat advanced in years, who can hardly hope to rejoice in a victory of his party, if deferred four years, has been materially modified by passing events. The Democrats have not made a mess of things in the House. Responsibility has given them wisdom. They have used their power sanely. Real capacity has marked their policies and proceedings. They have cultivated statesmanship and respect for the House has increased correspondingly.

Of the fifty-five House committees, thirty-nine are presided over by Southern Democrats. Seniority of service accounts for this domination of the South in the affairs of the popular

legislative branch of the Government. They are working committees, all. Even those charged with supervising the expenses of the various departments, which existed in the past only to provide clerkships and committee rooms, are doing something. They have brought to light—not in a noisy, spectacular way, but by calm inquiry and businesslike procedure—abuses which call for and will receive correction.

Nobody would readily believe that there is to-day or has been at any time under Roosevelt or Taft outright graft in the Government service, but a long lease of power unquestionably tends to promote extravagances and a too liberal use of public funds for personal rather than official ends. Both Taft and Roosevelt, it is only fair to recall, sought to install methods that would put a greater check upon public expenditures and safeguard the public purse, yet leakages and laxity have not diminished in recent years.

The important fact politically, however, is that the Democrats are displaying legislative capacity. They are not pulling apart, but pulling together. They are compromising their differences; no longer stubbornly aggravating them. Their legislative work—not consummated because of the Republican majority in the Senate—is constructive in aim, not destructive, and their leaders are showing a conservatism and poise wholly lacking since the free-silver hysteria rent the party in twain fifteen years ago.

William Jennings Bryan, still respected and beloved, is no longer the dictator. The counsel of such men as Woodrow Wilson and Champ Clark carries the greater weight at Washington to-day.

When the extra session assembled, it was the consensus of opinion of non-partisan well-wishers of the Democratic party, of those who believe that the country needs, and will always need, a strong opposition party, that this end would be hastened by the prompt passage of the Reciprocity bill and adjournment; but there is now general recognition of the fact that the proceedings have in no wise tended to discredit the House majority or create apprehension in view of the likelihood of complete Democratic ascendancy in 1913.

Under the old régime, Democrats who at this special session are important factors in the deliberations of the House and its committees were completely effaced. Their protests against conditions, feebly uttered save in notable revolts against "Cannonism," fell upon deaf ears. The South, which in the days of Democratic ascendancy, produced its Crisp,

its Mills, its William L. Wilson, and men of like law-making calibre, still supplied the occupants of the Democratic seats, but, in a hopeless minority and effectually throttled, their lights were under the bushel. To-day, they are a virile force, gaining in stature and demonstrating that the Democratic party is lacking no more in statesmanship than in its brilliant past.

In equipment for debate, the Republicans of the House are now outclassed. They lack the clear-headed Tawney, the polished Boutwell, the eloquent Landis, the convincing Overstreet, and the rough-and-tumble Grosvenor, greatest partisan champion of them all. Mann, well qualified, and the redoubtable Uncle Joe remain to fight the party's battles on the floor, but they have found a dozen combatants equal to any fray.

The Senate, still Republican by a feeble, uncertain majority, has not given the Democrats of that body equal opportunity for development. Their talents for legislation and ability for constructive work, if they possess any, are obscured by the coalition with the Republican Progressives, which has put LaFollette, Borah, and Cummins into the limelight. Of the new Democratic Senators, Kern of Indiana, Bryan's running mate in the last national campaign, has given evidence of capacity and is counted upon to become a real factor, after experience at Washington.

In the matter of discipline, the Democratic majority of the House has challenged admiration. It has not been equalled in many years. Bailey and Williams failed as leaders of the minority; Clark had better success and was rewarded by election to the Speakership. Underwood's leadership of the Democratic majority has been markedly successful and his colleagues on the other side of the chamber are quite generous in their recognition of the fact.

"Believing in government by parties," said a North Dakota Representative, "I am heartily pleased to see the perfect organization and admirable discipline which Speaker Clark and Chairman Underwood have brought about and are to-day enforcing. They are setting an example to the Republicans who must profit by it, if they would ever regain control of the House. We have had no such organization since the passage of the tariff bill which rent the party asunder."

Who shall profit by this extraordinary session of the Sixty-second Congress? The Democratic party primarily. At least, such must be the fair-minded conclusion at this time of the observer who has watched the situation in Congress as it is evolving itself.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE FEDERATION OF THE WORLD

BY W. T. STEAD

IT was with no high dreams or visions of Britain's destinies that Sir Wilfrid Laurier landed on our [British] shores in June. He came, a mundane of the mundanes, a practical politician, intent solely upon coping as best he could with the pressing problems of the immediate moment. These problems were those that most intimately concerned the Dominion of Canada and he was going to present them to the Imperial Conference. No man makes less claim to be an idealist. He takes things as they are, and molds them as best he can to his purpose. If there be any dominating idea in the background of his mind, it is rather inspired by memories of the past, in which he labored for the unity of French and British Canada, than by any aspirations for the future realization of the unity of the world.

Nevertheless, it is to this man more than to any other we owe the kindling inspiration of a renewal of the glories of our nation and the dawning of a new great hope as to the realization of the earliest and most cherished of the day-dreams of our race.

Some months ago I poured out my soul in lamentation over the fact, serious and indisputable at the time, that Britain had lost the leadership of the world in the cause of peace.

To-day I lift up my voice with exceeding gladness of heart and exultation of spirit because to my beloved country there has returned in a way we dreamed not of the proud position of heralding the next great advance of the human race toward unity and peace.

LAURIER'S DRAMATIC MOMENT

The leadership of the world in the conduct of the campaign in the immediate present remains now as then in the hands of our American brethren. But the planning of the future, the laying down the lines upon the progress of the world to be made in the years which are to come—that vaster and more important rôle has been placed in the hands of Britain. And it was the Canadian premier who placed it there.

Consider the circumstances of the moment. A new King whose dominant passion is the

achievement of the unity of the empire had just been crowned. For the first time the Prime Minister of the Dominion of United South Africa had taken his seat in the Imperial Conference. The great political event of the year had been the offer made by President Taft of a general treaty of arbitration to all the governments of the world. The German Emperor had just paid a visit of filial piety to the country in order to be present at the unveiling of the national memorial to Queen Victoria. Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself had emerged for a brief space from the battle which, under the banner of Reciprocity, he was waging in the cause of Free Trade against the serried ranks of the Protectionists in Canada and the United States. In the international sphere the world note was one of peace.

In the realm of applied mechanics the moment was not less significant. The *Olympic*, that floating motor island of 45,000 tons, the most gigantic vessel ever launched upon the sea, was starting for her first trip to the New World. The first dirigible British airship had just been launched in the North of England. Almost every week a new Dreadnought was entering its native element, and new and more powerful submarines, capable of crossing the Atlantic, were being designed in British dockyards. And far more significant than anything else, the advent of the aeroplane had been formally recognized at the great aviation day at Hendon, when the premier and his ministers witnessed the exploits of Grahame White, and Mr. Balfour ventured to take a trip in mid-air.

Thus there was at the same time manifest first the tendency to build huger and still more huge vessels, alike in the mercantile and in the naval marine, the putting of ever more and more millions afloat in a single keel, the construction of ever vaster and more bulky floating targets, in which the lives, the weapons and the resources of the nation were placed as hostages to fortune. Side by side with this stream of tendency was visible the second equally conspicuous phenomenon, the enormous multiplication of the power of small and comparatively costless engines of destruction—the submarine and the aeroplane.

It seemed as if the power that presides over the destinies of man was devoting itself to concentrating in opposite camps two forces—the one becoming every day more enormous, more visible, more costly, more assailable, and more vulnerable; the other, at the same time, becoming every day more invisible, less costly, more invulnerable, and more deadly.

It was at this moment, when the womb of the future was laboring with incalculable possibilities of infinite import, that Sir Wilfrid Laurier arrived in England for the deliberations of the Imperial Conference.

THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE

It is not within the compass of this article to describe in detail all the issues which were raised in debate. It is sufficient to call attention to the vital question upon which everything turned. That question, never formally raised in precise terms, was this: What is the British Empire to be? Is it to be an empire in the sense in which other states are empires, or even the sense in which the United States is an empire, viz., a unified state with one central government, with one tariff, one army, one navy, and one foreign policy? Or is it to be no empire at all in any sense in which the term empire has hitherto been used, but is it to be recognized as a very loose congeries of sovereign independent states, each with its own flag, its own tariff, its own army, its own navy, its own foreign policy, each of whose members is free to participate or to stand aloof from the wars in which the parent state is engaged?

These distinct and antagonistic ideals clashed, and their clash was perceptible in almost all the discussions which took place in the conference. The advocates of the unified empire were led by Sir Joseph Ward of New Zealand; the leading advocate on the other side was Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The combat was watched with intense interest by the two great parties in the British Parliament, who saw their favorite principles debated by the rulers of our dominions from the entirely independent standpoint of oversea Britains. The premiers, turning a deaf ear to the protestations of Sir Joseph Ward, have cried an emphatic halt to the movement in favor of what is called consolidating and unifying the empire. They rejected every proposal which even indirectly might commit them to any responsibility for the foreign policy of Great Britain. They have thriven under independence. They are jealous of any interference with independence. Each of them is convinced that the colonists are deter-

mined to paddle their own canoe, and that they would regard with exceeding jealousy and suspicion any attempt to commit them in any way to the foreign, naval, or military policy of Great Britain.

THE STAND OF THE CANADIAN PREMIER

In this they but stand by the *status quo*. In Sir Wilfrid Laurier's demand that the dominions should no longer be bound by the commercial treaties negotiated by the British Government when every British commercial treaty applied to the whole British Empire is a modification of the *status quo* in the direction of still further independence. It is true that the proposal is but the logical corollary of liberties already conceded to Canada. But all the same it is a move, and a distinct move, in the direction of splitting up the old unified empire into a series of independent sovereign states each possessing freedom of negotiating with foreign states as if they owed no allegiance to the British Government.

The diverging and antagonistic ideals of the two kinds of empire came to the most strident clash upon the crucial question of peace and war. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, standing upon the ground which he took up when he assented to the dispatch of the Canadian contingent to South Africa, asserted once more in emphatic terms that Canada reserved her right in all future wars in which Great Britain was engaged to decide whether or not she should take part in these wars or whether she would remain neutral. Sir Joseph Ward, on the other hand, supported by all the jingoists, ridiculed the idea of this empire run on limited liability principles. They pointed out that, from the point of view of international law, whenever the British Government went to war, every part of the British Empire there and then became involved in the war. Canada could assert her neutrality in time of war only by proclaiming her independence. Between these two opposing views the combat raged fiercely.

ITS EFFECT ON THE EMPIRE

But in the end Sir Wilfrid Laurier triumphed. And it is because his conception of the British Empire has prevailed among our brethren from oversea that there is now a great and glowing hope that the British Empire may pave the way to the federation of the world.

It must be admitted without hesitation or reserve that from the point of view of inter-

national jurists Mr. Laurier's conception of an empire which can be simultaneously at war and at peace is inconceivable. If the British Empire goes to war no dominion under the British flag can be from a juristic point of view in a position of neutrality. But Sir Wilfrid Laurier was not speaking as an international lawyer, but as a practical statesman. He did not choose his words with the precision of a jurist. When he said Canada reserved her right to be neutral he never dreamed of asserting that there could be a legally neutral dominion under the flag of a belligerent empire. When he said neutral, he really meant noncombatant. He was not thinking of legal status, but of practical politics. When he said that Canada, while assisting Britain in the South African war, reserved unimpaired her right to remain neutral if she chose in future wars, all that he meant was that Canada, whatever her legal status might be, reserved her right to abstain from participation in any future wars if she should decide so to do.

Between a declaration of neutrality, which logically involves a declaration of independence to give it effect, and a resolution to abstain from any active participation in the conflict, there is a wide difference. None of the dominions desire a neutrality that is only attainable by cutting the painter; but all of them—even New Zealand—is determined not to consent to be compelled to take part in any imperial war unless with their own hearty good will and assent. No great dominion will pledge itself in advance to fire a shot or spend the life of a single colonial soldier or sailor in defense of any portion of the empire excepting that within the frontiers of such dominion. They decline to accept any responsibility for framing the foreign policy of Great Britain lest inferentially it might appear to entail any obligation to support that policy by men or money. To the jingo this seems the end of all things. To me it is the beginning of the dawn of the new day which will usher in the federation of the world.

THE STATESMANSHIP OF LAURIER

Sir Wilfrid Laurier was most emphatic in asserting that he did not believe that the dominions would hesitate to rally to the support of the mother country in any war in which she was really put upon her mettle to maintain her independence and her position in the world. "In case of need we shall probably honor your drafts, but we refuse to give you a blank check payable on demand." The decision to go to war must necessarily for a generation to come be vested in the govern-

ment of the old country. No system of representation based on numbers can work out so as to deprive Great Britain of a decisive voice in questions of peace or war. The colonies, therefore, being unable to control the foreign policy of the empire, insist upon keeping control over the armies and navies which they raise and equip out of their own resources. They expect us to keep the seas and to help them in case of need. In return they will raise and equip naval and military forces for their own defense, upon which they tell us it is tolerably certain that we shall be permitted to draw in any conflict in which the dominions felt that we were in the right. Beyond that they refuse, and rightly, to go.

ITS LOGIC AND SIGNIFICANCE

It was Mr. Malan, the able Minister for Education of South Africa, who supplied me with the true analogy correctly to appreciate the significance of and the justification for the position of the dominions. He said:

I do not see why anyone should be scandalized at the attitude taken up by Sir Wilfrid Laurier in a country where universal military service is not enforced. In countries where every able-bodied man is compelled to be a soldier his position might be misunderstood, but not in Britain. When your Government goes to war, from the point of view of international law every Briton becomes a belligerent. But that is a matter of technical jurisprudence. As a matter of fact it is only your army and your navy which take any part in the war. The immense majority of British citizens reserve and exercise the right of abstaining from any participation in the war. No one can compel them to shoulder a rifle or don a uniform. They are not neutral, but they are noncombatant. The right which every British citizen claims as against his own Government, the dominions claim against the imperial Government.

"You forget that the British citizen is compelled to contribute by taxation to the cost of the war."

True. But the British citizen who refuses to drink or smoke can reduce his contribution to the cost of the war, and he makes up for the enforced levy of direct taxation by asserting and by exercising his right, not merely to stand neutral, as Sir Wilfrid put it, but actively by agitation and sometimes by passive resistance to oppose his own Government in levying what he considers to be an unjust war. For an illustration of which we need go no farther back than the energetic, unremitting, uncompromising stop-the-war agitation of your own pro-Boers. In reserving for ourselves the right to stand aside and to refuse to participate in active measures for the prosecution of any war of which we do not approve, the dominions are simply claiming for themselves, as state entities, the liberties and privileges which individual British citizens have always claimed for themselves in the case of wars made by the Government which owes its existence to their suffrages.

Mr. Malan's argument is sound. And so long as one volunteer is worth three pressed men, so will the probability of voluntary support from our dominions be worth much more than a bond compelling them willy-nilly to come to our help in every time of need.

THE NEW BRITISH EMPIRE

Let us see then what the British Empire amounts to according to the ideas of the dominions.

1. A common figurehead in the crown and a common symbol in the flag, qualified by the right to fly distinctive flags of their own.

2. The recognition by all the dominions that any appeal to arms would be a civil war and therefore unthinkable.

3. The existence of a supreme court of appeal for the settlement of all juridical differences.

4. The right to make separate commercial treaties, qualified by the understanding that all imperial dominions shall at least enjoy most-favored nation treatment.

5. The right to raise and equip their own naval and military forces, and to abstain from active participation in any war waged by the British Government, it being understood that as a matter of interest and of settlement, although not of obligation, the dominions would rally to the help of the motherland in case of need.

6. The obligation on the part of the imperial Government to consult the representatives of the dominions whenever alterations were proposed in international law, or whenever any questions came up for settlement affecting their interests.

7. A general understanding that in all matters relating to intercommunication, mails, cables, post office, and in all questions where common action can best secure common benefit, the various dominions will coöperate with one another and with the home Government for their mutual advantage.

"A WORLD-WIDE COÖPERATIVE ASSOCIATION"

It is a great world-wide coöperative association, on limited liability principles, for purposes of mutual help in securing the general welfare with a maximum of benefits and a minimum of obligations. It permits of the simultaneous existence of different flags, different tariffs, different commercial treaties, different armies and navies, different laws of naturalization, different coinage, different laws of immigration, different

languages—in short, its motto might be "Unity in diversity." But nevertheless, this strange, anomalous conglomeration of independent sovereign states is a living unit, whose unity has as its *conditio sine quâ non* repudiation of uniformity. To such a length is this principle carried that while the home Government may be at war, the dominions may act as if they were at peace, no one being able to compel them to stir a finger in support of the belligerent state to which they are juridically connected. Add to this that, unlike any other combination of states existing in the world, each and every one of the dominions is free to sever its connection with the empire the moment it decides so to do without its being expected or asked to consider any other interest but its own. The slighter the tie the closer the connection. The sentiment of fraternity has never free scope to work its wonders when brotherhood is enforced by handcuffs. It was because George III forgot that we lost the American colonies. If our jingoes had their way we should lose our dominions.

A WAY TO FEDERATE THE WORLD

The world-wide significance of this broadening of the foundations of the British Empire lies in the fact that for the first time the human race is confronted with a visible object lesson on a large scale of the way in which we shall yet federate the world. Heretofore at The Hague and elsewhere we have constantly pointed to the example of the American Republic. "The Americans have federated a continent; let us follow their example and federate the world." But the moment we began to see how the American example could be followed the analogy broke down; for the American Republic, despite its federal basis, is a highly unified state. It has one executive, one tariff, one army, one navy, one set of coinage and of postage stamps, and one foreign policy. When it goes to war every State in the Union also goes to war, and the right to secede is peremptorily forbidden. There is clearly no chance of federating the world on any such lines as these.

But that is just where the British Empire as conceived by the statesmen of the dominion comes in. It is impossible to federate the world on the lines of the Constitution of the American Republic. But it is not only possible, but perfectly practicable, to federate it on the exceedingly loose, elastic lines of the British Empire. It is true that for many years to come certain states, either because

they are too backward and sluggish or because they are too aggressive and ambitious, will stand outside the federation of the world. But what is there to hinder some far-sighted statesman founding an empire of peace composed of all the sovereign independent states of the world that are willing to enter into a coöperative fraternal union (limited) for mutual help, which would be bound together by the sort of ties that united Great Britain with the group of younger Britains beyond the sea?

A WORLD SUBSTITUTE FOR A CROWN

If we look over the seven articles by which I have just defined the nature of the British Empire, there is nothing lacking save a common crown and a common flag. But both could be supplied.

The crown is but an expression of ideal justice. The king in essence is not Edward or George, a biped in royal robes, with a diadem on his brow. He is the one being in the world who can do no wrong. That being so, whenever wrong is done by his ministers in his name, loyalty to the crown demands from all loyal citizens the most strenuous endeavor to free the King from his evil advisers. That is the essence of the kingship under which the British Empire has risen and thriven. For the nexus of the empire of peace any abstraction, such as Justice or Liberty, would serve the purpose equally well. The French find no difficulty in depicting the republic in monument or coin or stamp. A similar symbolic figurehead would serve equally well to familiarize the citizens of the empire of peace with the sovereign to whom their allegiance is due.

The difficulty as to the flag has long ago been surmounted. The flag of the world-state consists simply of the national flag of each associated state, mounted on a white ground, so that the white shows all around as a fringe. The flag of the central court of appeal would be a white flag, with as many golden stars as there are states in the union.

Given, then, a world-state or empire of peace, with Ideal Justice as its common sovereign and the white-fringed flag as its symbol, what other obstacle is there in the way of the formation of such a coöperative commonwealth (limited)?

Clearly the first indispensable prerequisite of such a world-state is a recognition by each of the associate members that war between any of the partners would be a civil war, and therefore not a war to be taken into consideration by their governments as a possible contingency against which it is necessary to arm. No modern state arms against a civil war. It is always against the foreigner that armies are raised and fleets built. Civil wars may of course occur, but they are not regarded as contingencies justifying preparatory armament. If war between the members of the world-state be ruled out as unthinkable, it follows as a corollary that some permanent arrangement must be made for the settlement of disputes on a juridical or arbitral basis. Here we have the door opened wide before us in the general treaty of arbitration which the American Government is offering to the governments of the world for their acceptance. We need not speculate at present upon the chances of this offer being accepted by any other country than our own. Supposing, as we have every right to do, that an Anglo-American treaty of arbitration is duly signed and brought into operation, why should this not be made the stepping-stone toward the constitution of the world-state or empire of peace, which is possible enough if once we are willing to be content with the wide and elastic ties which unite the dominions with the mother-country?

The objections of American citizens to an Anglo-American alliance are reasonable and perfectly well understood. But these objections do not apply to the merging of both the British Empire and the American Republic in a world-state or empire of peace in which each would retain intact its sovereign independence and by which neither would undertake any obligation to assist the other by arms beyond that which exists at the present moment. In such a world-state or empire of peace, if America went to war we need not help her, any more than Canada is bound to help us if we went to war for a cause which the Dominion regarded as unjust. Any remaining objection that might be taken to the constitution of such a world-state on British Empire lines would be met by the offer to take in on identical terms any other state which was willing to regard war with the other members of the world-state as civil war and to coöperate for purposes of mutual assistance.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

RECIPROCITY WITH CANADA, FROM AN ENGINEERING VIEWPOINT

IT is somewhat remarkable that, in all the discussion which has taken place concerning reciprocity with Canada, no reference has been made to the topographical and geographical conditions which render trade between the different parts of the Dominion exceedingly costly, and trade between the various parts of Canada and the parts of the United States adjacent to them particularly easy and advantageous. As an editorial in *Engineering News* remarks, "few people realize the extent to which topographical conditions divide the Canadian nation into separate parts remote from each other, each of which finds its natural commercial relations with the part of the United States immediately south of it, rather than with other portions of the Dominion." The first of these great divisions of Canada is the Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

These are separated from the trade centers of the Province of Quebec, their nearest Canadian neighbor on the westward, by a distance of over 500 miles. The distance from Halifax to Montreal by the Intercolonial Railway is 837 miles, and the road traverses hundreds of miles of almost uninhabited country in the district lying near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River. By the shorter cut across the State of Maine built by the Canadian Pacific Railway some twenty years ago, the distance from St. Johns to Montreal is nearly 500 miles. The water route from the Maritime Provinces to Quebec by way of the St. Lawrence River is over 1000 miles in length, and is subject to great risks of fog and ice.

On the other hand, the Maritime Provinces are at all seasons of the year in quick and direct communication both by water and by rail with Boston and New England markets. The natural trade of the Maritime Provinces, therefore, is with Maine and Massachusetts and Rhode Island.

The chief commercial and financial centers of Canada are the cities of Quebec and Ontario; and in these provinces are located the greater part of the manufacturing industries as well as the majority of the population of the Dominion.

The natural trade of this section of Canada is with New York, Ohio, Michigan and other sections of the United States lying immediately to the south. The difficulties of trade by Ontario and Quebec with the Maritime Provinces have just been noted; and in order to reach that great fertile section of the Northwest, of which Winnipeg is the center,

a railway journey of 1300 miles from Ottawa must be made. For most of this distance the railway runs through the barren, uninhabited district lying to the north of Lake Superior.

Then there is that prosperous and remarkably fertile stretch of country lying in the Central Plains district, which seems likely to become not only Canada's chief wheat-growing section, but also one of the greatest wheat-producing sections of the world.

It is increasing in population and wealth at a phenomenal rate, and one of the great economic problems of the present day is how the produce of this vast and fertile section can be cheaply transported to market.

The barrier of distance between this Northwest region and Ontario has just been noted. In order to obtain a shorter outlet for products of the Northwest sent abroad, the Canadian Government is now undertaking to build the Hudson Bay Railway—a scheme which will have to cope with unprecedented weather conditions in order to win success. The natural channel of trade for all this great section, destined to support a future population of many millions, is with the Middle West district of the United States—with the cities of the Great Lakes and of Minnesota and Dakota.

On the Canadian Pacific coast, lying to the west of the Rocky Mountains, is a narrow belt of Canadian territory, which is nearly 1500 miles distant from the plains district. Here, again, the natural trade is with American districts only a short distance to the south—Washington and Oregon.

Had there been no high tariff walls to hinder, there would, in the opinion of the *Engineering News* editor, have grown up between each of these sections of Canada and the section of the United States immediately adjacent an enormous trade vastly profitable to both countries. He considers that

with these natural trade channels thus obstructed by tariff walls, the Canadians have bravely made the best of the situation and have undertaken the creation of great national highways, both by rail and by water, between the East and West. The Canadian policy of government subsidies to railways and great expenditure upon waterways has been practically forced upon the country through the artificial barriers erected across the natural channels of trade.

Great credit is due to the Canadian Government and to Canadian engineers for the work they have

done in overcoming these natural obstacles; but no skill of the engineer, and no amount of investment by capitalists or by the Government can make an artificial trade route the equal of a natural one. The development of Canada, commercial, industrial and agricultural, can be fostered in no other way so much as by opening the natural channels of trade and allowing commerce to flow in them without restriction.

Referring to the opposition to the Reciprocity treaty urged by a few Canadian manufacturers, the editorial under notice says:

There is reason to believe that if all artificial barriers to trade between the two countries were removed, Canadian manufacturing industry might find even greater prosperity than at present. A manufacturing plant in Canada could find markets south of the border and not be limited as now to a comparatively narrow market.

The spread of manufacturing industry in the United States during the past half century, through

the operation of natural economic laws, is a proof of the fact that manufacturing plants will grow up in prosperous new sections of the country in defiance of competition from the older sections. . . . Under modern conditions, manufacturing industry goes where a cheap and reliable labor supply is obtainable, where climatic conditions are favorable, where raw materials are convenient of access, where transportation facilities are good. Canada's enormous water power, its advantages of water transportation by the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River, its wealth of natural resources in forests, minerals and agricultural products, and its supply of intelligent labor insure a great future for the Canadian manufacturing industry, regardless of United States competition. . . .

Doubtless, there may be cases of temporary individual hardship to Canadian manufacturing enterprises which have been established under the protection of the Canadian tariff; but in the long run manufactures will develop in Canada to a vast extent, even if absolute free trade is established with the United States.

AN ENGLISHMAN SAYS AMERICA IS "ON THE MEND"

SO many visitors from various countries of Europe have from time to time returned from America and proceeded forthwith to publish unfavorable comments about us and our ways, that it is peculiarly gratifying to read the observations of one who actually sees that we are really "on the mend,"—improving, in fact, in many directions. Prof. L. T. Hobhouse confesses, in the *Contemporary Review* (London), that when visiting the United States he had firmly resolved not to write his "impressions"; but, having seen certain things which he found different from his expectations, he is constrained to yield to the general temptation.

To begin with, he, in common with a large number of English people, had regarded the United States as "the land of the dollar," where the abler Americans "wrap themselves up in their private interests," and are indifferent to public questions; "indifferent to the social progress going forward in Europe; and impotently resigned to the corrupt rule of the boss and the machine." This view, Professor Hobhouse says, is partial and one-sided, and might have been fair twenty years ago. For himself, he found it "abundantly clear that throughout the Union Americans are deeply discontented with things as they are. They are in full revolt against the domination of capital." Almost every thoughtful American that the professor met during his visit was "chafing at the barriers which the Constitution opposes to social progress and rea-

sonable industrial legislation." He considers, however, that the American reformers have before them a constitutional problem as far-reaching as the English one and much more difficult to handle.

In illustrating the new attitude of opinion, and particularly educated opinion, in the United States, Professor Hobhouse notes as one striking feature of the case the concentration of advanced social views in the universities. He writes:

In most American universities the sociological side is developed to an extent undreamed of in England. Economics, political science, and general sociology are represented, and the studies of social legislation and practical questions of social reform have special professors or assistants. Serious account is taken of the work of such men. . . . Altogether one might hazard the prediction that what the universities think to-day the United States will think to-morrow; and the universities are thinking in terms of a heightened social consciousness, and a singularly broad and generous interpretation of social duty and the common good.

On inquiring whether there was any individual worker or statesman who had given the impetus to this relatively new movement of thought, Professor Hobhouse was invariably informed that if any individual could be named in this connection, it was Mr. Roosevelt.

Another question which an Englishman naturally asks is, what political form the new movement is taking. What party is there in which it is represented? For reply, the pro-

fessor gives his readers a disquisition on the difference between American and English politics, in the course of which he says that "it is probable that the choice of the next Republican candidate for the Presidency will indirectly decide whether the Insurgent Republicans are to prevail and are to form the nucleus of a genuine party of progress, or whether the citizens and the Radicals will tend rather to work through the Democratic organization." As many public questions fall within the scope of the Federal Government, while others are in the province of the State, the reforming spirit does not readily incorporate itself in a single party.

With regard to the exposures of "graft" in the magazines and the daily press the Professor has this to say:

The first impression which these exposures make on the reader is that American politics must be a nest of thieves. The second is a measure of doubt whether the truth is not rather that America is more fully alive to the various forms and possibilities of "graft" than we [the English] are. "We wash our dirty linen in public," they admit. Well, we Englishmen err, if we do err, in the opposite direction. . . . We approach all questions of personal credit in political life with the most velvety of gloves . . . the Americans have taken the gloves off. . . . Americans themselves, so far as my experience goes, generally admit an improvement. Few seem to think that anything so flagrant as the

Tweed ring could flourish in these days in a city like New York. The "Bosses" of the old type are said to be dead or dying out everywhere. . . . Few appear to think that the methods by which the greatest of the trusts built up its power would be available to-day. Finally, the railways have been tamed by the Interstate Commission.

The interest in politics proper is confined, according to the Professor, to the native American, who "forms a kind of moral and intellectual aristocracy which at bottom feels itself superior to the bulk of the men who are actually doing the work, manning the State Legislature and city councils with the aid of an ignorant and corruptible vote." A better class of men is needed in American public life; and to this, the Professor thinks, there is a decided tendency. The "new spirit in America is resolved to gain its end, and is setting itself to the task with all the energy and resourcefulness of the American mind." This energy, which has hitherto been expended on material development and commercial aims, "is beginning to apply itself to something infinitely more worthy"; and the time may not be far off when "the deep-seated pride of American patriotism will center not on vastness of territory or on colossal figures of population, trade, and commerce, but on preëminence in the ways of social justice and the arts of humane living."

SIBERIA AND HER ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

THE rapidly increasing immigration of the Russian peasant class to Siberia renders the future of that Asiatic province a very important question, which has already attracted the close attention of the Russian government and of the press. The Siberian correspondent of the *Russkaya Mysl* (Moscow), comments upon the recent report of the two members of the Russian cabinet who made an investigating trip through Western Siberia in the fall of 1910. Although this report, as most of the Russian official reports do, reveals a great lack of thoroughness and accuracy, nevertheless it is interesting in so far as it expresses the program the government intends to apply in the disposition of the economical wants which confront Siberia. The main features of this program are formulated in the above report as follows:

(1) While populating Siberia with the agricultural class it is necessary to make sure of a market for the Siberian grain.

(2) It is necessary to direct the economic development of the new settlers and of the older in-

habitants in a way that will correspond most closely to the natural conditions of the province and to the general situation of Russia on the world's market. The authors of the report also contend that the correct development of the economic life in Siberia can only be induced by spreading there the principles of private land ownership, and that the present methods of populating the country ought to be reformed.

It is evident that the basis of this program is the firm belief on the part of the government that the immediate future of Siberia is that of an exclusively agricultural country which has no chances for a rapid development of manufacturing industries.

The question of finding a market for Siberian grain is a very serious one and demands immediate solution.

The increase of the agricultural class is rapid, 900,000 peasants have migrated to Siberia within the last two years and a large surplus output of grain is imminent. The absence of a market for this grain might seem strange but such is the case. However, it may be explained. Because the Siberian grain was in 1905 already regarded as a dangerous competitor on the Russian market, the government established a prohibitive tariff on the grain

coming into Russia from the other side of the Ural mountains, and since then no Siberian grain comes into European Russia. Although the Siberian grain might find an excellent market in London and in other Western commercial centers, because of the lack of a developed sea route it cannot get there. At last the effort to sell some of the grain in Asia itself, in the Baikal Province, was met with a discouraging failure because of the competition of the cheaper Manchurian grain. If we add to all this the utter absence of a somewhat developed system of railroads and improved waterways we can see clearly the almost hopeless state of affairs.

The two ministers suggest in their report the building of a railroad connecting Semipalatinsk and Uralsk, also of a canal connecting the Volga and Obi rivers, and a gradual repeal of the above mentioned, so called, Tcheliabinsk tariff.

The author of the article in the *Russkaya Mysl* expresses his belief that the Russian Government should pay serious attention to the improvement of the many waterways with which nature has so generously endowed Siberia. While the construction of railroads is exceedingly important and is an

urgent need, for the "threadlike single Trans-Siberian line is of very little service by itself," nevertheless the question requires very close and careful consideration, for waterways should come first, and for the next few decades, at any rate, the railroads should not be allowed to compete with the waterways, *i.e.*, they should not serve in the same districts.

Then comes another very serious difficulty which ought to be done away with.

All the land which the settlers now occupy belongs to the government, which neither sells, nor even rents it out to them, but exacts a poll tax for the use of it, and feels perfectly at liberty to move the settlers around from one place to another. This method of land tenure discourages to a very great extent the economic growth of the farms, for no farmer feels secure enough to undertake the establishment of any improvements on the land he lives on. Such industries as fisheries, tanneries, potteries, etc., which might very well flourish in Siberia, are greatly hampered by the lack of private land ownership. Therefore the question of the extending into Siberia of this principle is very urgent, and the sooner it is realized by the government, the better it will be for the development of Siberia.

TOLSTOY ON FINLAND

IT is characteristic of our modern internationalism to find the *Samtiden*, a Norwegian periodical, printing the report by a Russian writer of a conversation with the late Count Tolstoy about the present struggle of the Finnish people for national self-preservation. The writer in question signs himself merely "Adler." He visited the venerable sage of Yasnaya Polyana about a year ago, having come there straight from Helsingfors. The interview brought from Tolstoy some characteristic expressions, showing at once his heartfelt sympathy for a people in distress and his absolute unwillingness to countenance any violent resistance.

The legal relations between Russia and Finland, said Tolstoy, could only be grasped and properly elucidated from a religious viewpoint. Judicial considerations, or even the decisions by a popular representation, could play no part whatever in such a crisis. The prevailing opinion, supported also by the legal profession, is that Finland once received from Alexander I. certain rights which have lately been withdrawn piecemeal in spite of all protests from the wronged party. Now this seemingly well-founded opinion is based on a wholly false conception: for rights can neither be given nor taken, not even by those who hold the power. Resistance on the part of the Finnish Diet would only provoke more oppression on the part of the Russian Government. The Finnish people must let itself be guided more than ever by the religious feeling within itself, but it must do so without regard to institutions or

organizations of any kind. Above everything else, and no matter what the future might bring, the Finns must drop every form of patriotism. For every patriotism, whether it be Finnish or Russian, represents a negative position and implies a threat against other nations. Above all patriotism stands the solidarity of all mankind, and in the name of this solidarity alone the Finnish people should take action. When a new humanity has been reared on true religious foundation, then all petty political problems, whether called national or anything else, will disappear of themselves.

In so far as Tolstoy suggested any positive action on the part of the Finns, he seems to have contemplated a general, but not organized, refusal on their part to contribute anything whatever to the support of an army, whether that army be Russian or Finnish. He recommended that such a policy be carried out at any risk and said naively: "They can take away my horse or my cow, but to take my money away from me and compel me to use them for a contemptible purpose—that is simply out of the question." Most touching of everything the aged writer said during this interview was an exclamation that escaped him toward the end:

I suffer on behalf of the Finns as much as any one among them. And my heart is heavy with the fate of the Poles, and the Letts, and the Jews. I suffer because of everything that Metchnikoff writes and Stolypin puts into action. I feel in a way as if I shared the guilt of those men's words and deeds!

A WHITE AUSTRALIA AND THE AUSTRALIAN FLEET

AUSTRALIA does not intend to have a "colored problem" to combat with, if it can help it. The problem is not the negro, but a possible influx of "allegedly peaceful and loyal colored fellow subjects" of the British Empire from India. In the *National Review* is an article, by Mr. James Edmond, editor of the *Sydney Bulletin*, entitled "The Australian Fleet," which, we fancy, is likely to prove somewhat disquieting to Prime Minister Asquith and the other powers that be in King George's Government. As is well known, Australia has made the beginning of a navy, popularly supposed to be brought into existence for the defense of the Empire—in other words, to be at the beck and call of the naval lords of the mother-country. Now, Mr. Edmond is like the "Man from Missouri"—he wants to know; or, as he puts it, "the Australians of whom I speak want to know." And the subject on which they ask for information is this: As the British Empire includes a colored population outnumbering the whites by perhaps six to one, on which side will a powerful Australian fleet—supposing such a one is built and placed under purely British command—be, when "the time comes to resolve whether the colored subject is a real yellow citizen or not"? Mr. Edmond does not mince matters: he leaves no room for doubt as to the real feeling of the "good Australian" on this question. He says:

The Australian fleet (when there really is such a fleet) will be found (when the day comes for defining the situation) to exist, first, for the purpose of keeping Australia a white man's country against all comers, and second (only second), for the defense of the [British] mostly colored Empire.

If there is any chance of Australian ships being under the command of an Imperial Government which would "have authority to decide that the colored fellow-subject has just as much right as a white citizen to move and settle freely throughout the Empire," the bulk of the Australian people would "regard their fleet as a calamity." Australia is to be a white Australia. Mr. Edmond's declaration on this point is so comprehensive and so incisively worded that we give it in full:

The White Australia idea is not a political theory. It is a gospel. It counts for more than religion; for more than the Flag, because the Flag waves over all kinds of races; for more than the Empire, for the Empire is mostly black or brown or yellow; is largely heathen; largely polygamous;

partly cannibal. Some of it is married to its deceased wife's sister, which may not be objectionable, but a huge proportion of it still believes at its heart in the burning alive of its deceased brother's widow, and that is wholly reprehensible. In fact, the White Australia doctrine is based on the necessity for choosing between national existence and national suicide. Australia is so far from Europe and North America, and is so close to Asia, that if it opened its gates it could easily get a hundred colored immigrants for one white—not the Kaffir variety of colored immigrant, but a kind which is capable of competing in all kinds of skilled craftsmanship. Supposing this influx set in, the country's present working class would disappear for exactly the same reason which has prevented any white working class appearing in India, Burmah, or Ceylon. Probably it would be found, as in the Indian dominions, that a white ruling caste of about half a million folk would fill all requirements. That would mean the vanishment of nearly nine-tenths of the present white population. And with this new arrangement of things a wonderful dream would pass like the smoke of yesterday's cigar.

For the Australian has a dream. His country is almost the same size as Europe or the United States or Canada. He pictures it as another and a better Europe, with 150,000,000 or 200,000,000 inhabitants. It is to be a Europe without the various flags, and the various languages, and the various races, and the traditions of civil and religious feud—without the tangle of ill-built medieval cities—with no semi-Tartar in the east, or unspeakable Turk in the southeast, or half-breed Greek, or Sicilian with the blood of Africa in his veins, or Portuguese mulatto, or semi-Moorish Spaniard. Also it is to be another Canada without its inhospitable climate and its mixed population; another United States without its negro problem; another South America without its diverse political interests and its wildly mongrel peoples. The dream is more than possible if Australia keeps itself white, but, unless appearances are wondrously deceitful, it is possible of no other great country on earth. Australia is the only continent which the Anglo-Saxon possesses—the only continent which any one nation possesses—also the only continent on record which has ever had one race, one language, and one government. The distinction is rare enough to be worth preserving.

In Mr. Edmond's judgment, the time will almost certainly come when the White Australia policy must go, or "it must be explained once and for all to the colored man, who makes up the great mass of the Empire, that he is an inferior being (he is already treated as one) and will never be anything else." Australia "knows exactly which side its military forces would be on should the day of trouble come"; but it does not know where its fleet would be, under the control of the British Admiralty, and "it would feel better if it did know." And Mr. Edmond, by way of justification for this desire, advances the following telling facts:

Australia has accomplished its small share for the Empire. It has done as much as any one else to make London the supreme financial center of the world. Within the last sixty years it has dug out some £500,000,000 worth of gold—about as much as the whole world was supposed to possess in 1848, coin, bullion, and jewelry all included—and most of this has gone to England. It has been, in proportion to its population, the best customer Great Britain ever possessed. At one time it was, in proportion to population, many times as good as Britain's next best customer. It paid for many years chiefly in yellow metal—not in wine or tallow—and it still pays largely in yellow metal, and that gold to a great extent decided Britain's position as the world's chief creditor. If Britain still values Free Trade, then it is fair to remember that Australia was the chief influence which made Free

Trade possible. That boasted fiscal device had just had its first beginnings, and barely had time to arouse a suspicion that it was a failure, when the influx of Australian gold and the demand for British goods in exchange created a revival and to a great extent saved the situation. . . . Again, Australia has not cost the Empire the price of an Indian Mutiny, an Afghan or Kaffir or Zulu or Boer War, or even a Red River rebellion, or a Jamaica massacre. It has not involved the mother-country for very many years in so much as the expense of a little ornamental garrison to do sentry-go outside a governor's residence. It has borne a small part in two of the Empire's petty wars, and a somewhat larger part in a third. And now it is introducing a system of general military training to be in readiness for any greater emergency which may arise.

CHINA'S SUCCESS IN HER WAR ON OPIUM

IN the article entitled "China's Own Opium War," which appeared in this section of the REVIEW for May last, reference was made to the serious handicap imposed upon China in her work of reform by the privileged importation of Indian opium. It is gratifying to learn that England has made certain concessions to China in regard to the reduction of importation which will enable the latter, if she lives up to them, to extinguish her opium traffic as early as 1914. In the July *Forum* there is a comprehensive article on the subject from the pen of Rosa Pendleton Chiles, which brings into view the remarkable success which has attended China's efforts so far, and which leaves no doubt as to the sincerity of the government of that country in endeavoring to wipe out completely the national evil. The article referred to gives many interesting details which show the astounding nature of the task which China has undertaken. The *Forum* writer indeed characterizes some of the difficulties that have stood in the way of the reformers as "both Titanic and Satanic." She says:

With the poppy to be swept from the fields of every province and almost every district, with a thousand walled cities, a hundred thousand towns, and a million hamlets to be freed from opium, together with the vast stretches of country and the defiles of the mountains where the "blind tiger" lies in wait for his victim, the task of suppression has been stupendous. The reformers have been met in places with hoes and pitchforks, and the law has not been enforced without bloodshed. The physical difficulties alone have been such as we who live in a more highly developed portion of the world can scarcely comprehend. China has few railroads, and in some sections the worst roads on the globe. Into such country the reform had to penetrate. It must not be forgotten also that China is made up of twenty-one semi-independent provinces, besides dependencies, with a separate

army, a separate fiscal system, and different manners and customs. In such a disjointed federation as this uniform effort had to be made.

By the agreement with Great Britain, in effect January 1, 1908, China was placed, as it were, on probation, the further action of the British Government to depend on the measure of success which China could show at the end of the probation period. What this success has been is characteristically set forth in the following passage (condensed) of the *Forum* article:

Many of the 21 provinces have ceased cultivation of the poppy entirely. . . . The only way in which we can properly imagine this is to picture the wheat of the Northwest, the corn of the Middle West, and the cotton of the South swept from many of the vast tracts they cover as by a cyclone. Add to the picture, if you will, some products of the East; for it must be remembered that the fight with opium has been over an area as great as the United States. In many places other crops have already taken the place of the poppy, and this will be the case over the entire area. . . . The Chinese officials claim that the reduction in [poppy] cultivation has reached 80 per cent.; the British consuls acknowledge a reduction of 25 to 40 per cent.; and the American consuls will this year probably name 50 per cent. as a fair estimate. Fifty per cent. means that in the poppy fields of China, whose purple and crimson glory has been the symbol of a people's ruin, a miracle has been wrought.

Regarded from the fiscal side of the reform, China's activity is entitled to the highest praise. The growth of the poppy and the interprovincial trade in opium are, under the law, to cease entirely this year. The Tuchi-pu or Board of Finance has agreed to give up all revenue on native opium, which means an annual loss of nearly \$44,000,000. This is all the more meritorious when it is remembered that opium is selling in China at four to six

times its normal value, and in some places at $2\frac{1}{2}$ times its weight in silver.

England, also, is making an enormous financial sacrifice. The net opium revenue of the Indian Government for 1909-10 was £4,420,600 (\$22,103,000); and the new agreement between the British and Chinese governments calls for a reduction of importation from India into China step by step with China's own reduction in cultivation of the poppy.

In witnessing the wonderful efforts China is making, America may justifiably remember with satisfaction that the first international opium commission was called by President Roosevelt upon the initiative of Bishop Charles H. Brent of the Philippines. At that commission, convened at Shanghai in 1909,

Dr. Hamilton Wright, the United States representative, said:

The American people believe that Great Britain will defend herself against the criticism of all right-minded people by replacing her opium revenue, sacrificing it, mayhap, and by sacrificing dual agreements and obsolete treaties, as she sacrifices and sends to the scrap heap an obsolete class of battle-ships that are of no further use to defend her extensive interests.

In his view it was unthinkable that England, who had freed the slaves in her colonies at a cost amounting to fifteen times the sum involved in her Indian opium trade, would sacrifice willingly so much to abolish one great evil and not be willing, when the way became clear, to sacrifice less to abolish another.

ITALY'S STATE MONOPOLY OF LIFE INSURANCE

ABOUT two months ago the startling announcement was made that the Italian Ministry, under the pretext of creating a fund or facilities for a system of popular general insurance, had drafted a bill having for its object the constituting of life insurance a state monopoly. The project has aroused the righteous indignation of the well-known French publicist, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, who in his paper, the *Économiste Française*, makes it the subject of a trenchant article. He publishes a synopsis of the scheme which, freely translated, reads as follows:

Life insurance, under any form whatsoever, shall be reserved to a national institution, which shall have the monopoly of it. Therefore, the transaction of life insurance in Italy shall be forbidden to all associations, both national and foreign; and these must within fifteen days after the passage of this law deliver their books to the government: but the contracts running on the date of the promulgation of the law shall be valid until completion. It shall be unlawful for any Italian citizen to insure abroad, unless he can prove that he has resided abroad for at least a year.

Societies, companies, concerns, or persons engaged in Italy in the business of life insurance shall not be entitled to any guaranty, compensation or indemnity from the state or the National Institution in respect of any rights that may be attached, even indirectly, to the monopoly thus created; and all actions at law on the subject will be disallowed.

All matters concerning the economic operation of the National Institution shall be regulated by an administrative council composed of four high state officials, four citizens of standing, and the director of the National Provident Fund. This fund, as is known, is a state establishment already charged with the administration of voluntary workmen's pensions and those relating to the Workmen's

Accidents law. All the revenues of the Insurance Fund shall be deposited with the National Provident Fund.

The capital of the National Institution shall be constituted by an advance of five millions, to be made by the state, which shall be reimbursed within ten years from the beginning of the third year of operation.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu has sought in vain for the justification of any similar project. Neither Germany, which twenty years ago established a scheme of workmen's insurances, nor Great Britain, in instituting workmen's homes or retreats, has had any thought of organizing a state monopoly of life insurance. And France, in considering during the past ten years various schemes of insurance of this kind, has never thought that she ought to seize upon it. One cannot understand, therefore, how an idea of this nature should have come suddenly as an inspiration or a revelation to Italian statesmen. M. Leroy-Beaulieu asks what resources will accrue to the Italian Government as the result of the proposed monopoly. For many years his paper has published annually the results of the operation of seventeen of the leading French life insurance companies having fixed premiums; and he gives in the article under notice the following figures:

On December 31, 1909, these seventeen companies showed secured capital of fr. 4,055,916,705. The amount of new assured capital in 1909 was more than 549 millions, the disbursements amounting to nearly 399 millions, leaving an increase, in round figures, of 151 millions. The same companies in 1909 issued life annuities to the amount of fr. 106,548,000. Thus in the rich and provident

country of France, after a century's experience in insurance systems, these seventeen companies have more than four milliards francs of secured capital and issued life annuities for more than 100 millions a year. The balance disposable on account of profit and loss in 1909 was fr. 19,520,429, of which, after various disbursements, there remained fr. 14,244,644 for dividends, interest, and taxes.

Does anyone believe, asks M. Leroy-Beaulieu, that if the state were substituted for the companies it would secure this net profit of nearly fourteen millions?

Italy is a much poorer country than France; life insurance is a much younger institution there than in the latter country; the secured capital of the insurance companies is said to be 1600 millions—less than one third of those of France. The revenue, consequently, will also be less than one third of the French companies—about two millions of francs; but this will be acquired gradually and if the Italian Government persists in its proposed monopoly should rightfully be charged with

the indemnity of the various companies. Here comes in the exorbitant and iniquitous pretension of the Italian Government. As shown above, it proposes to offer no indemnity whatever to the dispossessed companies. Also, it forbids the Italian citizen to insure his life abroad. The presence of these two clauses, says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "warrants one in describing the project as one of the most astounding monuments of the presumption and iniquity of modern statecraft." It is said that the objectionable clauses will be corrected. Even so, "the whole affair will remain prejudicial to public progress, without being anywise productive for the state." An indemnity is manifestly due to each of the dispossessed companies; this indemnity should represent future gains at the normal rate of progress; and it should be settled amicably by common agreement or by the proper tribunals and upon a fair and even generous basis.

DEVELOPMENT OF GERMANY'S COLONIES

MAX VON BRANDT, the German diplomat and author of numerous works on the Far East, in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin), discusses the question of German colonization showing why the Germans have thus far not proved very successful as colonizers, and pointing out with a righteous warmth what course they ought to pursue in regard to the native colored races in their African dominions.

Though it is beyond doubt that interest in colonial questions has greatly increased in Germany in the last years, it can not, unfortunately, be said, observes Herr von Brandt, that a proper comprehension of the problems that have arisen has kept pace with it. Three movements may be cited as the chief elements in the newly awakened interest: the Southwest African revolt, the discovery of diamonds in the same region, and, last but not least, the policy of the Colonial Secretary, Herr Dernburg.

The great loss of life and the enormous financial sacrifice involved by the protracted Herero uprising in Southwest Africa brought home even to the most indifferent the significance and value of that colony. That a new and more vital spirit animates colonial administration, that a wide interest has been aroused in colonial affairs, may be credited to Herr Dernburg's activity. Whether the discovery of diamonds—which also took place under his régime—will redound to the benefit of the colony is a moot question. That the discovery of extensive mines of another kind, requiring steady

labor and of permanent benefit to the community, would have been more advantageous to it than the wild, speculative fever and dissensions, apparently inseparable from such finds, is the opinion of the thoughtful friends of Southwest Africa.

That the German colonies have not had the slow, gradual development of those other nations is chiefly due to unfavorable internal and external conditions, but partly also to the maladroitness of the colonial administration and of the settlers in their unaccustomed surroundings. At least, so this German writer believes.

The fact that from the outset the colonists have looked to the Government for help instead of steeling themselves by struggle with untoward circumstances, has been a great handicap to their development which it will take a long time to overcome. The splendidly organized bureaucracy might be beneficial elsewhere but is a poor foster-mother for growing communities, that should learn to stand alone before committing themselves to its care. There is still another retarding cause: the Germans are justly reputed to be among the best, if not the best, colonists—under foreign rule. In their own colonies they are the most refractory subjects imaginable. Centuries of political dismemberment have left their traces in the German character. Except in supreme moments—as in 1813, '66, '70—they have generally been carried away by ill-advised issues. And to-day there is a baiting of capital and of everything non-German. Capital is as essential to the German colonies as sunshine and rain. The attempt to frighten away foreign or German capital, as has lately been frequently done, is arrant folly. Money is very sensi-

tive, and once driven out or suspected it will be hard to lure it back, particularly as the colonies can thus far point to but slender financial successes.

Just as with capital so it is with the immigrant. He is offered no inducements to exchange his old home for the new one.

The same military duty, taxes, duties—often even higher—as at home, while he misses all that endears life to him in his own country. The great mistake has been that Southwest Africa was represented as purely a cattle-raising region, where large tracts and much capital were required—and peasants with abundant means naturally stay at home. It is essential that the administration and the farmers should realize that they must coöperate with capital instead of antagonizing it.

A consideration that should not be underestimated in the question of German colonial development is the race problem, which, in the main, resolves itself into the negro problem. The sessions of the Colonial Congress held in Berlin in October, 1910, furnished valuable information as to the views entertained by those interested in the welfare of the colonies. The average opinion may be assumed to be that the negro must be trained to work under modern conditions. But there seems to be some doubt in this writer's mind as to whether the native negro should remain a workman of the lower order or be trained to benefit from his association with commercial and industrial affairs and rise to a higher plane.

A GERMAN SALON OF THE ROMANTIC PERIOD

WHEN Madame de Staël was in Berlin in 1804, she exclaimed to Rachel Levin at the end of their tête-à-tête, "If I stayed here, Mademoiselle, I should grow jealous of your superiority!"

The daughter of an antiquary, Rachel had a double struggle with her own health and parental narrow-mindedness before she succeeded in gathering around her a brilliant throng of grand seigneurs, poets, philosophers, men of letters, pamphleteers and actors. To the library of her "garret" in her father's Jaegerstrasse hôtel, each work of Goethe was added as it appeared to the rows of Lessing, Jean-Paul, Voltaire and Rousseau. But no book was of such interest to Rachel Levin as the study of a living personality. She had the rare gift of enlivening and harmonizing diverse and often dissenting elements among her guests.

M. Bossert gives an account of Rachel's salon in the June *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Frederick Schlegel, original but with halting speech, Tieck, ready and even impassioned on the subject of the drama, and Schleiermacher, the eloquent preacher, mingle with the scapegrace Gentz, Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia and Benjamin Constant, cynical, unhappy and elegantly indifferent. This intimate yet changing, subtle literary life, unknown before in Germany was abruptly ended by the battle of Jena. And only after twelve years did Rachel, now the wife of Karl Varnhagen, the diplomat, reopen her salon in their Mauserstrasse house.

Here Heinrich Heine came in 1821. Ra-

chel's welcome was warm, though she upbraided him for the pessimism and carping spirit shown in his half-dozen printed poems.

Heine dedicated his "Wiederkehr" poems to her, but Rachel was indignant at being immortalized and consoled herself by the probable transiency of her fame! She had been deeply irritated at Heine's habit of saying "Goethe and I," but later she wrote with better foresight of the Buch der Lieder: "A great talent which must mature quickly if it is not to degenerate into affectation." Heine never ceased to celebrate her greatness of heart.

Bettina von Arnim, a matron now and returned from her indiscreet wooings of Goethe and Beethoven, found her way to the Mauserstrasse. The guests were retiring at midnight, where, to the general surprise, as he was known to be absent from Berlin, the Prince von Puckler-Muskau was announced. The door opened and the merry malicious Bettina appeared, enjoying the effect of her hoax. Mocking, yet irresistible, the little witch made the rounds, beginning with the saucy advice to Professor Gans, the militant liberal leader, not to grow deaf and blind to life like his learned University colleagues. The most gifted were held by her torrent of wit and imagery.

M. Bossert closes with a lyric note from Rachel's diary on the death of Goethe—an epigraph as well on her own life of worship of the beautiful.

"Perfume of the rose, trill of the nightingale, matin of the lark—Goethe has left you—your great witness is no more."

THE AMERICAN PAINTERS' EXHIBIT AT ROME: AN ITALIAN APPRECIATION



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JOHN S. SARGENT

(The American portrait painter whose work has been highly praised in Italy)

IN glancing over Signor Benedetti's description in the *Nuova Antologia* of the paintings now at Rome, we see again the familiar delight of oblique sun rays dying red the golden grain of an Émile Claus harvest, the rigid violent-toned silhouettes of a Hodler fresco, the vital joyous animality in foliage of vivid greens of Anders Zorn, and the endless solitude of pine forests amid trackless snow and miracles of iridescent frost—the winter faëry of Fjaestad.

But it is an unexpected boon to see our American painters weighed in the same balance and receiving unstinted praise. Signor Benedetti remarks on the solidity and elevation of aim which characterize our exhibit as a whole, and commends emphatically the tendency to uphold the tradition of the English and Scotch schools, in spite of that temptation to follow ultra-modern technical ideals, to which we might have been supposed more prone on account of the national pursuit of novelty in every form. A greater sign of eminence could not be conceived than this harmony and self-restraint in a body of artists born to ideals and modes of living of

different races, to say nothing of different schools, and who, living in a country of such vast and changing horizons, must lack that historical and ethical unity which is so clearly to be recognized in the painting and sculpture of the European countries.

Signor Benedetti regrets that Whistler did not exercise a more profound influence on American painting, though he admits that a follower of that high and genial pathfinder must have been endowed with like sensitiveness, talent, and, above all, the same quality of mind. Sargent, he thinks, might have had the threefold gift had he not been led astray by his own marvelous technique and his success as portrait painter: His "Portrait" at Rome, certainly one of his oldest—a lady in a silk gown—is modeled so wonderfully as to be sculptural and the flesh, painted with a simplicity and breadth as harmonious and deeply stirring as the greater master's. The other celebrated "Portrait of Miss M. Carey Thomas" has the two hands painted with more delicacy yet more life than any other modern painter could have rendered them. And though a difference in quality is noted between the two older pictures and the more recent "Portrait of Mrs. Fiske Warren and her Daughter," yet the genius and exquisite tact of the fresh harmony of rose tints that forms the predominating note in the latter picture cannot be denied.

The influence of the English school is strong in "Dorothy and her Sister," by William Merritt Chase, the head of the child of perfect grace and of dignified conception, as is the "Portrait of Roosevelt" by Cecilia Beaux. Too slight perhaps, but exquisite, a small picture of a child by Louis Betts, dignified and simple in treatment a portrait of Grover Cleveland by Wilton Lockwood. Striking, because more alive and filled with meaning, a "Portrait of Mademoiselle Gerville-Reache as 'Carmen,'" by Irving R. Wiles.

In landscape Signor Benedetti remarks the fidelity of the Americans to the Scotch love of clouded skies, far-off horizons, mists, veiled sunsets, and gray atmospheric effects, as in an autumn scene by Lathrop and in the "Glory of Autumn," by William S. Robinson. "The Thames—from London" by Ranger recalls Turner with its rich fantastic coloring, and another landscape of his—an autumnal vision too—is full of style. Daniel Garber

sends a charming winter scene and Henry Robert a study of a large pond of water in a snow-bound garden; and Foster, Williams and Vander Weyden contribute interesting versions of different moods of nature. In the decorative division Signor Benedetti prefers the "Memories" of John W. Alexander to the "Winged Figures" of Abbott H. Thayer and the "Fortune" of Elihu Vedder.

But in the graphic collection the critical instinct is silent and this Italian enthusiast concludes:

Among the water-colors are many valuable detailed landscape studies, such as those of Hallowell, a touch too uniform but how beautiful in its

willfully repeated harmonies of azures and violets; the tropical marines of Charles H. Woodbury; the seemingly careless work of Dodge McKnight that obtains such vigorous and strictly true effects; and finally the quite different scenes, by Jules Guérin, accurate, highly finished, but forcible nevertheless in their very insistence of delicacy. And then the magnificent, truly American *eaux-fortes* of Pennell that recall the work of Brangwyn in their masterly execution and in their subjects—the great waterways and ports and the American cities that are worlds, houses lofty as hills, streets that seem abysmal, and all the intricate, immense, and fantastic ironwork of bridges, smokestack, and aerial railways above, and below a very anthill swarm in perpetual movement—those cities reflected in the verse of the great poet of modern American life and civilization, Walt Whitman.

THE THACKERAY CENTENARY

THE celebration of the Thackeray centenary in London, with its memorable dinner—memorable for the speeches made thereat—and the reception and the exhibition of Thackeray relics at the Charterhouse, left no room for doubt as to the abiding place held by the great novelist in the hearts of his countrymen, and the security of his high position in the temple of Fame, testified to by both critics and laymen. On this side of the Atlantic, also, the event was not forgotten. Major Lambert's remarkable collection of Thackerayana was exhibited in New York, and sympathetic articles appeared in the magazines and in the daily press. The *Book News Monthly* in its Thackeray Centenary number prints an excellent piece of criticism by Mr. Herman Scheffauer, under the caption, "Thackeray and These Times," in which that writer says:

Despite the gulf which lies between his age and ours, Thackeray has bridged it. He has bridged it in the same way in which he bridged another—that which stretched between the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, between the age of Fielding and his own—from the first of the great English novelists of the old school to the last of the old school. . . . Three great prose masters loom out of the shadows which are beginning to dim for us the early part of the nineteenth century. Side by side with noble peaks of poetry, rose those gigantic pyramids of prose reared by Scott, Dickens, and Thackeray. The first of this triumvirate was by nature a feudalist; the second, a democrat; the third, an aristocrat. The genius of Scott was romantic; of Dickens comic; of Thackeray, critically humorous.

He draws a picture of the early Victorian world, of and in which Thackeray wrote—"this far-off world of our grandfathers, with its sepulchral Sundays of folk sitting in dark

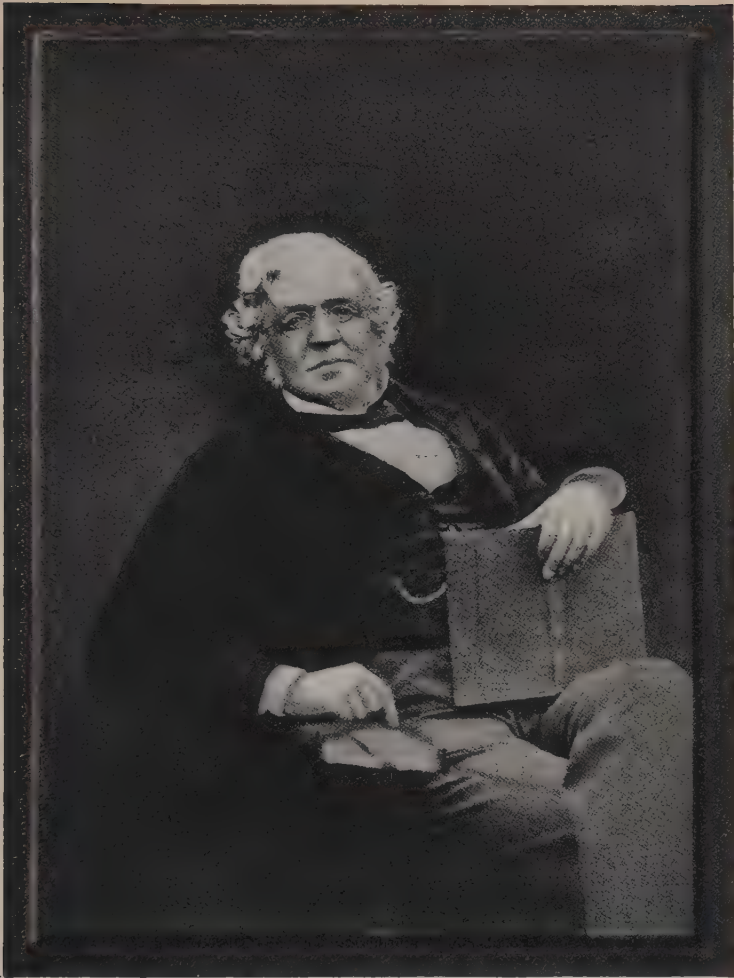
parlors, of bleak Christianity, of hideous houses, antimacassars, blood-letting and crinoline, of debtors' jails, genteel drunkenness and dandyism"—which was, for all that, "spacious and full of glorious opportunities for genius such as Thackeray's." Thackeray, he says, was "not only the showman, but also the moral anatomist of this period. His works "are an elegant microcosm of the time. Like softly tinted figures in old engravings, we see this passing show and rout (all ladies and gentlemen) strutting and ambling before the polished spectacles of their creator."

Mr. Scheffauer's comparison of Thackeray with Dickens differs little in its conclusions from others which have found general acceptance:

Thackeray was the polished gentleman writer who had little knowledge of lower and darker social worlds and preferred to state his comedies and tragedies in terms of the upper classes. . . . His interest was aroused by the humanity of what was "respectable" and not by a humanitarianism toward what was abject or pathetic, like that of Dickens. . . . Thackeray was distinctly the critic and historian of his own time, his own town, his own class. . . . His popularity was warm, but it was never wildfire like that of Dickens, the blue-covered instalments of whose works were hungered and fought for by thousands as they appeared.

Of the personal appearance of the novelist there is given an excellent idea in the following paragraph:

Boehm's famous statue of Thackeray, long-legged, standing at ease with hands in pockets, and coat-tails dangling, with his massive head slightly raised, the expression benign but curiously attentive, the small, steel-rimmed spectacles pressed upon the little nose, broken as a boy by his school-



THACKERAY'S LAST PHOTOGRAPH

(From the original given by his daughter Anne [Lady Ritchie] to Bayard Taylor, after Thackeray's death)

mate Venables—that statue is Thackeray not only to the life, but to the soul.

To the same magazine Miss Ethel Talbot contributes a clever analysis of Thackeray's women characters, from which, owing to lack of space, we (regretfully) can give only a few extracts.

Thackeray has twice drawn the perfect adventuress: in *Becky Sharp* and in *Blanche Amory*; and has differentiated them beautifully. Since *Becky Sharp* tends to the statuesque, the splendidly dignified, her foil, *Amelia Sedley*, must be small, sweet, and stupid. As *Blanche Amory* is *petite*, sly, full of small ways and wiles, so *Laura Pendennis* is all stately purity.

Thackeray never draws a lovable old age, save, perhaps, in the person of Colonel Newcome, who can never be really old. He could not imagine *Betsey Trotwood*; nor does he paint a faithful

servitor; old *Pegotty*, *Mark Tapley*, *Sam Weller* are alike impossible to him. . . . Since Colonel Newcome and *Madame de Florac* meet with such obvious tenderness, and tread lightly, tremblingly over such a volcano of memories, there seems no reason, save the essential cruelty of the Thackerayan view of life, why they should not have married, as *Dickens* would assuredly have seen that they did, and consummated a deliciously fragrant old folks' romance, such as *Mary Wilkins* of to-day delights in; but the Thackerayan cynicism, forever trampling under foot the Thackerayan sentimentalism, though it permits moralizings tender upon their past and the misfortunes of their lot, yet resolutely keeps them apart.

Throughout the article there are—as might perhaps have been expected—numerous comparisons with *Dickens*.

He [*Dickens*] has many lovable, human little heroines—always small women—*Bella Wilfer* of

Our Mutual Friend, the heroine of *Bleak House*, Florence Dombey, Ruth Pinch. Thackeray has no one to set beside these; there is a certain aloofness, a chilling dignity about Ethel Newcome which does not permit us to take her to our hearts. . . . Amelia Sedley is another helpless little Dora. . . . and Laura, of *Pendennis*, is Agnes Wickfield over again. . . . Of all Thackeray's gallery of feminine portraits a few remain to be remembered with delight. There is my Lady Castlemore, very feminine in her jealousy, very womanly in her endurance, pure and perfect. . . . the pathetic half-length of Mme. de Florac . . . subtly feminine, she has all the appeal of the unfortunate in love, allied to the sweetness of a nature that is only deepened and strengthened by the calamitous years. Then . . . the Fotheringay, a dear, good-hearted, vulgar creature. . . .

There is tragedy in Thackeray, but very little pathos; in Dickens, there is much pathos, pathetic sometimes, but very little tragedy . . . Thackeray's wit is often cruel; Dickens's humor never. . . . To sum up one essential difference between the two great Victorians, we may say that Thackeray best understood men and the world; Dickens, women and the home.

From the pen of another lady writer, Miss Eveline Warner Brainerd, the *Independent* prints what the editor of that magazine very properly describes as a "graceful, informing, and appreciative essay on the great novelist and essay-writer, whose humor and sentiment were equally sane and true." We quote the following characteristic passage:

His lads are living beings, and hardly shall time alter their value, since youth is ever the same. If his women have been questioned, one half suspects that it is because readers are annoyed at the permanence of his type, rather than because the type is exaggerated. His bad women are finer than his good . . . Thackeray's business was picturing life as he saw it, not emphasizing this or that defect or virtue for the benefit of a cause. . . . Thackeray had none of the instincts of the reformer. He reflected sufficiently on Helen Pendennis, for instance, on her virtues and her limitations, but never once in all these reflections does the obvious moral appear that if she had been taught more she would have been less ignorant. His men, indeed—Esmond, the Colonel, and Dobbin excepted—are weak enough to be hailed by us all as brothers.

Full of interesting biographical data is a paper entitled "Thackeray in London," by Mr. W. J. Roberts, in the Centenary number of the *Book News Monthly*, cited above. The future novelist, who was the only child of Richmond Thackeray of the Bengal service, was born at Alipur, Calcutta, on July 18, 1811, and was sent when five years old to England, to be educated. After periods of schooling at Southampton and Chiswick, he entered the Charterhouse, London, in 1822, remaining there till 1829, when he went to Cambridge University. He read law for a time, but, desiring to become a painter,

went over to Paris—only to discover that he would never make a good one. When Seymour, the illustrator of *Pickwick*, committed suicide, in 1836, Thackeray, coming to London, applied to Dickens for work, but his offer was refused. He afterward alluded to this refusal, on the part of Dickens, as "Mr. Pickwick's lucky escape." Marrying at Paris in 1836, he became for a year the Paris correspondent of the *Public Ledger*. He and his wife came to London in 1837, and settled at No. 13 Great Coram St., Bloomsbury. Here the eldest daughter (now Lady Ritchie) was born. To quote Mr. Roberts:

Thackeray's married life was very happy until shortly after the birth, on May 28, 1840, of the third daughter (afterward Mrs. Leslie Stephen). Mrs. Thackeray never recovered from this event, and from then until her death in 1894, she lived at Leith in Essex, in the care of people who were expert in the care of the mentally afflicted. . . . In the summer of 1846 he decided on setting up a home for himself and children, and to this end took No. 13 (now 16) Young St., Kensington. Here he wrote *Vanity Fair*, *Pendennis*, *The English Humorists*, *Esmond*, and a part of *The Newcomes*.

Here, too, he became acquainted with the firm of Smith, Elder & Co., the publishers. Of this event Mr. Roberts writes:

It was just at this time when *Pendennis* was finished, and Mr. George Smith, the head of the firm, called on Thackeray with an offer for the book. "There's a young fellow just come," said Thackeray. "He has brought a thousand pounds in his pocket; he has made me an offer for my book: it's the most spirited, handsome offer. I scarcely like to take him at his word: he's hardly more than a boy; his name is George Smith; he's waiting, and I must go back to him." And the bargain was struck. . . . Later on this firm became his sole publishers.

In 1853 he removed to 36 Onslow Square, Brompton, and in February, 1862, he took possession of a "really pretty building in the Queen Anne style," at No. 2 Palace Green, Kensington, which he had erected on the site of an old house which he had pulled down. Two years earlier he had accepted the editorship of the *Cornhill Magazine*, so named from Smith & Elder's old premises at No. 65 Cornhill, London. Illness and hard work wore Thackeray out prematurely. The last book on which he was to work was *Denis Duval*. Concerning this, Mr. Roberts says:

Here [No. 2, Palace Green] on Dec. 23, 1863, he worked on the proof of *Denis Duval*, and on that day he laid down his pen forever. Tired and ill, he left his work at an early hour and went up to bed. . . . In the morning (December 24) he was found dead in bed from an effusion of blood into the

brain. . . . The last words that he corrected were, "And my heart throbbed with an exquisite bliss."

He was buried in Kensal Green Cemetery, and his unpretentious grave is almost next to that of his friend John Leech, the caricaturist.

In 1851 offers had come to him to lecture in America, as the result of his successful appearance on the platform in London. On October 30, 1852, he sailed on his first visit to the United States, among his fellow passengers being James Russell Lowell, returning from Italy. He landed at Boston, November 12. He visited America a second time in October, 1855, being greeted as before, by Dana, Holmes, Longfellow, Lowell, Prescott, Ticknor and many other American friends. These two visits are charmingly described by Gen. James Grant Wilson in the *Independent*, being accompanied by a copy of a diary

kept by Thackeray of his second sojourn in America.

A writer (F. M. B.) in the *Catholic World*, treating of the "inner life" of the great novelist, says of him:

He firmly believed that the immortal soul of man was in the keeping of God; he realized that prayer was the logical corollary to love; he admired the possession of both gifts by Swift, of whom he said, when contrasting him with Fielding and Steele: "his was a reverent and pious spirit, for Swift could love and Swift could pray." In fact, Thackeray seems to have been struggling with religion as so many good men of his days were. . . . One of the most eloquent of the many panegyrics called forth in his lifetime was Brimley's, when he said of him: "He could not have painted *Vanity Fair* as he has unless Eden had been shining brightly in his inner eye." . . . His aspirations, his acts, his ambitions were all pure. He had a "good-will" towards everybody and the most single-minded of aims for himself.

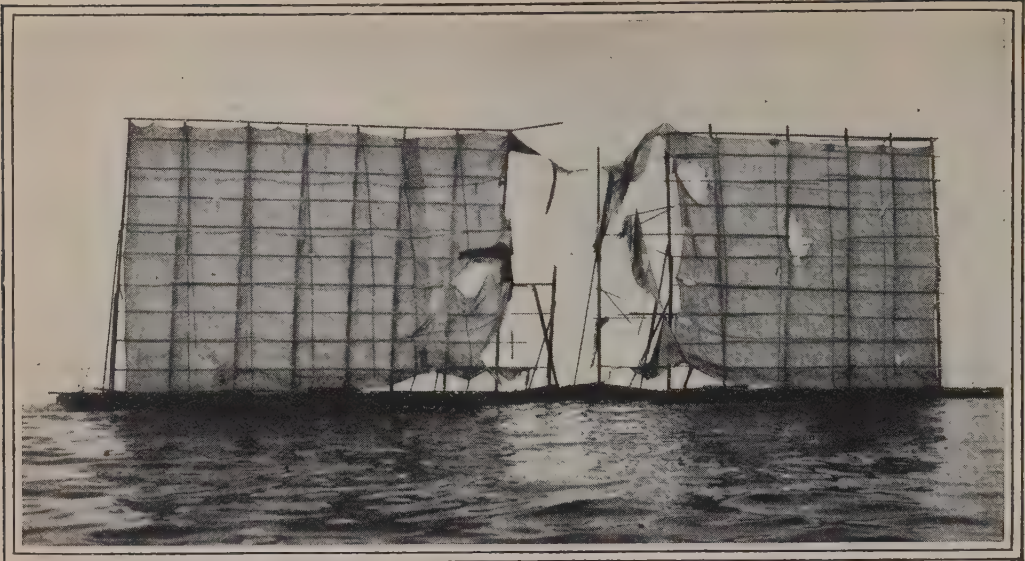
WHAT SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT HAS DONE FOR OUR NAVY

THE truth of the poet's assertion, that "things are not what they seem," has seldom received a more striking exemplification than that afforded by the United States Navy in the Spanish-American War. In the popular estimation, our fleet covered itself with glory in Cuban waters. Column upon column of eulogy appeared in the press. The man behind the gun became the hero of popular songs which invariably "brought down the house" night after night. All of this enthusiasm, however, was based on the mere semblance of things. Lieut.-Commander Walter B. Tardy, U.S.N., writing in the *Engineering Magazine*, is authority for the statement that although press and people were satisfied with their navy at the close of the Spanish war, yet "when stock was finally taken, and the small percentage of hits made became known, naval officers realized that something must be done to justify the public confidence." The same writer asserts that at the Battle of Santiago, in a smooth sea, "less than 3 per cent. of all the shells fired by the American fleet hit the enemy," and that "there is no record that a single 12-inch or 13-inch shell took effect."

Scientific gunnery training was begun in the United States Navy in 1902; and it has been prosecuted with such energy and zeal that to-day that navy is, in hard, quick hitting, second to none. Recently at battle practice, in a moderately rough sea, the

Michigan, steaming at 15 knots, fired forty-eight 12-inch shells and made twenty-two hits at a target only 60 feet long by 30 feet high, at ranges of about 10,000 yards, and this at a rate of about two shots per minute per gun. These results have been attained only after long practice of a standardized drill; and Lieut.-Commander Tardy describes in detail how the standardization has been secured. He outlines the methods of collecting data; of studying men and operations; of fitting men into the places they are best qualified to fill; of determining standard times for individual operations; of developing team work and bringing the team operation up to the highest attainable speed, coupled with absolute precision; and of providing a sufficient incentive to secure the best effort of officers and men.

In each gun crew each component member had to be trained in his individual part, whether gun-pointer, trainer, sight-setter, plugman, loader, or shellman; then these individually trained units had to be fitted into a homogeneous crew; then team work was introduced; and when the crew could serve the gun accurately without interference the speed of the team work was systematically increased. If in the course of this training it was discovered that speed was diminished by reason of some physical feature of gun, hoist, or sight, the necessary improvements in design and mechanism resulted, all tending toward standardization.



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AN AMERICAN BATTLESHIP'S TARGET AT A RANGE OF SEVEN MILES

(This wonderful result was achieved by the *Vermont* at Manila in 1908, while the ship was making her highest attainable speed)

All the members of the crew of the best gun on each ship get a money prize, and the best gun of the best ship in the navy gets in addition the navy prize. If the score made by a gun is an exceptionally high one, every man in the crew is furnished by the Department with a letter "E" to be worn on his sleeve for a year. This "E" corresponds in the navy to the "H" or "Y" won by a member of a victorious Harvard or Yale crew or football team. In addition to the money prizes, the letter "E," the commendation in general orders, and the commendatory letter to the officer in command of a winning gun crew, the men make pools on the score, and thus have the incentive of a sporting interest.

In no operation has scientific management borne more remarkable results than in the all-important one of coaling ship. Until liquid fuel is adopted, the speed with which it is practicable to coal a ship will remain a paramount question. Not many years ago, 30 to 40 tons an hour taken on and trimmed in the bunkers was considered satisfactory. When the captain of the *Iowa*, soon after the Spanish war, announced that by proper planning he could take on and trim 100 tons an hour, the service thought he was dreaming. But by the introduction of scientific management some ships have taken on and trimmed 350 tons per hour for the entire coaling period, with a record of 550 tons for the best hour. It is satisfactory to know that these improvements "have resulted without overtaxing or driving the men."

As a matter of fact, the men are now led by their officers, fewer men are employed, they work to march or rag-time music played by the ship's band, and every man feels that the hard, dirty work of coaling ship is a competition of skill in which all take part.

In coal consumption, the increased efficiency is already beginning to tell in dollars and cents. On January 1, 1908, the average battleship knots per ton was 2.88; on July 1, 1910, with ships 20 per cent. larger, this average was 3.77. In the various other departments, such as ship handling, stores, engineering, and repairs, the same scientific management has been introduced with equally encouraging results; and, as the writer under review observes, "no one is satisfied with present attainments; all feel sure that improvements will continue." And so well defined are the duties and so well fixed are the responsibilities that, "a head of a department, the senior engineer officer, for instance, may not come into personal contact with the commanding officer for days at a time. This, of course, if everything goes right." One reads, too, with pleasure that "the day of dictatorial military control of the men and of harsh treatment is past. . . . The officer is in no sense a driver; he is a leader and a director, as well as a fellow worker. . . . The men are enthusiastic, loyal to their officers, to their ship, and to the service."

A FRENCH ICONOCLAST AND MADAME DE SÉVIGNÉ

IF to-day characters have no longer dramatic blacks and whites, history is losing them too as psychological values. Just as we had recovered Jeanne d'Arc as saint and legend, we hear that the academical aureole of Madame de Sévigné is to be tinged to a rather vivid—shall we say, Rubenesque—carmine.

There are those, we fear, who still harbor a grudge against the Marquise as against the model boy and other scholastic nuisances, and who will hardly refrain from mischievous joy in seeing her at last arraigned before the master's desk. And for what offenses against good taste, propriety, and even of decency! M. Lacour is the plaintiff in the *Nouvelle Revue* and the chief witness is the savant M. de Monmerque who has restored the robust carmine to the "Lettres" that their first editor Perrin washed out to the pallid rose of the "Lettres Choiesies" as we knew it.

On opening his case M. Lacour as courteous adversary makes his bow to Madame de Sévigné. But alack! not to the délicateuse Marquise, the living grace of her time, but "to the lineal descendant of Rabelais, Villon and Jean de Meung—as is moreover betrayed by her round face beaming with health, amiability and humour—and quite devoid of distinction.

If we recall that Marie de Rabutin-Chantal was the granddaughter of that mystic Madame de Chantal, afterward Saint Jeanne de Chantal, the foundress of the Visitation order of nuns, we can but wonder at Marie's divergence from the grande dame traditions of her race. Marie was introduced early to the Hôtel de Rambouillet and Chapelain himself read with her Tasso and Virgil. Married at eighteen to the spendthrift Marquis de Sévigné, at twenty-five she was left a widow with two children, a son who after a reckless youth, died in the odor of sanctity like his ancestress, and the daughter, later Madame de Grignan. After the latter went with her husband to Provence, Madame de Sévigné's conversations on paper began—mirrors of the life around her and that life the blossom-time of French classicism.

Of this correspondence it is but just to say that it is the most marvelously witty, versatile and facile in French literature, and as a historical document, the Marquise's insight into character and dramatic instinct render the "Lettres" invaluable.

But with occasional pinches to keep us on the alert, M. Lacour leads us like Puck through his inexorable quotations from the original "Lettres." The Marquise takes extreme pleasure in reading Rabelais. Certain



MADAME DE SÉVIGNÉ

passages make her "die of laughter" and she recommends them to her daughter, adding, "You know I do not like unnatural pruderies!"

If Madame de Sévigné owes some of her failings to the excessive freedom of speech and conduct of her age, she owes them still more to her own nature, which was essentially lively, reckless, malicious and wheedling by turns. But her liveliness does not always keep the right tone. There is a long road from unnatural prudery to indecency and Madame de Sévigné often raced down it to the detriment of all dignity and reserve. The matron of our day will probably be astounded that a woman could be as virtuous as the handsome Marquise undoubtedly was, and still possess so little restraint or good taste. But Mme. de Sévigné's heart was wholly devoted to her idolatry of Madame de Grignan, and it may be added that her mentality did not in any way resemble that of a worthy matron of to-day.

The malicious anecdotes about Mademoiselle La Marans, the misdoings of Breton peasants and of the Duchess of Portsmouth and Charles II are too licentious for translation. But the Marquise exclaims to her daughter, "These funny people who amuse me!"

About royal personages she found sufficient current gossip to dispense her from adding the *sel gaulois*, but the tales lose nothing in the telling even in comparison with the contemporary "chroniques scandaleuses."

In citing one flagrant case, Madame la Marquise veils her thought with irony and exquisite tact but retrieves herself by the remark that she would discuss the matter fully with Bussy-Rabutin when they next dined together. "We were indeed as much surprised as charmed with such reserve!" comments M. Lacour.

Her eulogist, de Mazade, forgot too the incredibly cruel pleasantries about the execution of La Brinvilliers and the revolted Bretons who were hung indiscriminately to the branches of the nearest trees and thus "brought to reason." "Her excessive high spirits trick her reason," says M. Lacour. "Hence the flashes of cruelty and the unwitting revelations of inhumanity. Even her eulogists have not extolled her kindness of heart—essential and greatest of the human virtues.

"Let us conclude that the Marquise de Sévigné had more brilliancy than grace, more charm than distinction, more volatility than nobility, and more expansiveness than tenderness. Tact, sense of proportion, and delicacy are wanting. She is gayly indecent and coarse at will. A great charm is undeniable, but it emanates from her genius; there is no divine ray from her soul!"

THE MEASUREMENT OF VISION

DURING the past twenty years there has come into existence a school of opticians who rely solely on mechanical means for the measurement of the powers of vision and the adaptation of lenses for the aid of such powers. The principles of this school are clearly set forth by Mr. E. G. Wiseman, of Buffalo, N. Y., in the July number of the *Keystone Magazine of Optometry*. The optometrists, as they call themselves, are opposed to the use of drugs for the purpose of causing relaxation of the muscles in order to permit measurement of the eye's refraction.

The optometrists contend that the eye must be in active use, possessed of all its functions, before its powers of vision can be measured. The use of atropin or belladonna produces a condition of the eye that is likened by Mr. Wiseman to muscular paralysis. In this condition, he holds that accurate measurement of the eye's powers is virtually impossible.

There are few so-called perfect eyes, and even the most perfectly formed eye is but a makeshift as an accurate optical instrument. It is defective in many details, and the one in which it varies the greatest from exactitude is precisely the one defect which is brought into prominence when an attempt is made to estimate the refraction of the eye when the eye is under the influence of atropin or "drops." Accepting the term as it is commonly understood, a defective eye—one defective in its formation or refractive powers; *i. e.*, ability to properly focus light—is an eye which is too short or too long from the anterior surface or cornea to the posterior surface or retina, or it is asymmetrical

in curvature—the curve of one meridian being greater than that of the meridian at right angles to it, with a graduating variation of the intermediate meridians between these two. The first condition is called hyperopia or far-sightedness; the second, myopia or near-sightedness, and the third condition, astigmatism. In either of these conditions there is an imperfect focussing of the rays of light entering the eye if the focussing lens within the eye is at perfect rest, except for certain circumstances which have no bearing on our present discussion.

The effect of atropin on the circular muscles of the iris is to paralyze them, thereby dilating the pupil to its widest extent and admitting great volumes of light into the eye. As stated by a well-known oculist, "when we use atropin the conditions of refraction then obtained do not represent the actual refraction of the normal eye."

The optometrist, on the other hand, induces the muscle to relax of its own accord, and examines the eye in its natural, normal state. In his methods medicine plays no part whatever. Instead of being forced into inactivity, there is a normal physiological relaxation. The optometrists regard their science as a department of physics and not of medicine. Columbia University has recognized this view, and has embodied a course of optometry in its curriculum. In the State of New York practitioners are required to pass an examination set by the State Board of Optometry. Twenty-five States of the Union have laws regulating the practice of optometry.

THE PHENOMENAL DOCK DEVELOPMENT OF LIVERPOOL

ONE of the most remarkable examples of rapid economic development is that presented by England's great port of Liverpool. It seems almost incredible that a little more than two centuries ago the port was practically unknown, and that when, in 1636, Charles I levied his "ship money" charges, Liverpool should have been assessed at £25 (\$125) only, while Bristol—long since fallen into the background as a port—was rated at £1000 (\$5000). According to Mr. Mark Meredith, in the *July Cassier's*, Liverpool's first dock was begun in 1704; and even to-day all tidal data are referred to the level of its ancient sill. So far as can be ascertained, it was opened in 1720, and it had an area of 1 acre 2897 yards. The first docks were vested in the Corporation, and their early development was carried on toward the south of the "pool" from which Liverpool derives its name. By 1857, twenty-two docks had been built, and in that year there came about what proved to be an epoch-making event, namely, the transfer, by Act of Parliament, of the docks from the control of the Liverpool Corporation to that of a public trust entitled the Mersey Docks and Harbor Board, called of recent years by the easier name, the Liverpool Port Authority. To quote Mr. Meredith:

By this act the docks became their property as from January 1, 1858, and they had their work cut out for them to satisfy the needs of the port's shipping. They had to complete the Birkenhead Docks on the Cheshire side of the river, and between 1858 and 1872 they more than doubled the area of the docks within the port, whilst the tonnage, which in 1855 was only 4,000,000 tons, was more than 6,574,000 tons in 1873. The next dock extension scheme was a £5,000,000 one, involving the construction of the Brocklebank, Langton, Hornby and Alexandra Docks, thus reaching to the northern and southern limits of the present estate. Thus, then, in a little over 175 years an estate was created containing in its area docks and all the usual port adjuncts, whilst there is now a new dock in course of construction which will be unique in the history of dock engineering, viz.: a combined wet and dry dock more than 1100 feet in length.

As it would occupy too much space merely to name the docks themselves, we extract from Mr. Meredith's account notices of some of the more striking features of the port. At the Canada Dock, for instance, a huge coaling crane has been provided which handles loaded coal wagons weighing 30 tons each, and main-

tains a speed of 300 tons per hour. Between the Collingwood and Stanley Docks is the Stanley tobacco warehouse—the largest in the world.

It is of fireproof construction, and is 125 feet high, with a total floor area of about 36 acres. The building consists of a vault quay and twelve fireproof upper floors. . . . More than 60,000 casks of tobacco can be stored on its floors without piling; and at one time more than 125,000 hogsheads of tobacco, valued at £25,000,000 (\$125,000,000), were stored within its walls.

The southeastern block of the Waterloo grain warehouses, surrounding the Waterloo Docks, has been fitted up as a flour-mill to which boats come straight from the open sea, the ground wheat being despatched in railway trucks from the door to destination. At the extreme end of the Liverpool estate there has been provided accommodation for the petroleum trade.

Magazines hewn out of the solid rock of the cliffs adjoining the south and east side of the Herculeum Dock, each capable of storing 10,000 barrels of petroleum, have been leased to various parties in the oil trade. There are sixty magazines altogether, and each has been provided with a meat and the doors are 4½ feet above the road level, so that in case of accident the contents will fill the moat.

The foreign cattle trade is dealt with at the docks on the Cheshire side of the Mersey. Here there is accommodation for 6000 head of cattle and 16,000 sheep. A mile or two further down the river are two large graving docks and fitting-out basins.

A work which calls for continuous application on the part of the Port Authority is that of dredging the river bed. Previous to 1890 a bar extended across the entrance to the port and only vessels drawing 10 or 11 feet of water could get over it at low tide. The employment of enormous, specially constructed dredges has been entirely successful, and now there is a depth of 70 feet at low water at the landing stage. The latest dredger, the *Leviathan*, is one of the largest in the world, and can dredge 15,000 tons of sand from a depth of 72 feet below the water level in fifty minutes.

The outstanding feature of the port is its famous landing-stage, which, though provided specially for the Atlantic passenger traffic, is used by nearly every passenger ship entering or leaving Liverpool.



THE "MAURETANIA" PASSING THROUGH SANDON ENTRANCE TO LIVERPOOL HARBOR

The whole structure is a floating stage, first built in 1847, but reconstructed after having been destroyed by fire in 1874. It is 2748 feet long and has an average width of 80 feet. . . . It is held in position by a number of bridges, connected with the shore and stage by swivel joints and by mooring chains. . . . For cart and vehicular traffic there is a floating roadway 55 feet long and 35 feet wide. . . . The largest vessels can come up to it at all states of the tide to land or embark their passengers.

A good idea of the enormous extent of the Liverpool docks is to be gained from the following data given by Mr. Meredith:

At the present day the Liverpool and Birkenhead docks directly under the control of the Mersey Docks and Harbor Board, consist of 583 acres of water area and a lineal quayside of 36 miles, whilst its extent on the Lancashire side of the River Mersey is $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles and inland on the Cheshire side for a distance of 3 miles. The total land area comprised in the estate is $1677\frac{1}{4}$ acres, and in it are more than 63 wet docks, and 19 dry docks . . . with 370 cranes of all descriptions. . . . The value of the dock property is estimated at between £30,000,000 and £40,000,000 (\$200,000,000).

Since the inception of the Board in 1857, no less than £30,500,000 (\$152,500,000) has been spent on the docks alone.

THE SYRIAN IN AMERICA

SEVERAL years ago an exhaustive study of the Syrian population of Greater New York was made by Prof. Lucius Hopkins Miller, now of Princeton University. In the nature of things, the Syrians of the city of New York cannot be said to be representative of their own race in the United States, and on this account the investigation into the causes of the immigration movement from Syria to America, recently undertaken by Mrs. Louise Seymōur Houghton, is of considerable economic importance. In the course of her work, done under the auspices of the Carnegie Institution, Mrs. Houghton spent eight months in Syria, and subsequently visited all the important centers of settlement in America and she contributes the first of a series of four papers on her subject to the *Survey* (July 1).

Most emigration is due to economic causes; and Syrian emigration has to a certain extent followed this law. But the peculiar conditions of the Turkish Empire have usually intermingled religious with economic considerations in this movement. Religious bigotry, feuds between Moslem and Christian, massacres, which Mrs. Houghton asserts are "going on all the time in one part of the Turkish Empire or another," even to-day, have all been responsible for migrations from Syria to this country. Although certain Syrians are believed to have emigrated to the United States between 1870 and 1876, they cannot now be traced, having been farmers who pushed westward, took land, and became merged in the growing communities. What is described as "without question the first Syrian family in the United States," was that of Prof. Joseph Arbeely, with his wife, his six sons, and his niece, whose date of arrival was 1878. Of these first immigrants, Mrs. Houghton writes:

The family is one of position in Syria; Professor Arbeely had been head master of several schools in his own country, and his name as a scholar is remembered there. He had taught Arabic to most of the American missionaries of the period, and had assisted in the translation and the revision of the Arabic Bible. In this country, the family took an excellent position; two of the sons founded the first Arabic newspaper in the western world, *Kawkab Amerika* ('The Star of America'), and the elder of these two has long been a physician of reputation in Washington, D. C. A third brother was consul in Jerusalem under President Cleveland. Another was long in the immigration service.

As to the source which supplied the first Syrian immigrants to the United States, there is a tradition among the Syrians themselves "pointing to B'sherreh, a village high up in Mount Lebanon, as the center of the first permanent migration of that people to this country." The first considerable emigration however, occurred in the early eighties, from Zahleh, a place entirely wiped out by the massacre of 1860, but now the largest village in Lebanon. These Zahleh folk went westward to the large cities, where they began, no doubt, by peddling, but are now, the majority of them, established in business. The Arabi Pasha revolt in 1882 drove to this country a number of Syrians; and there lives in Nebraska to-day a home missionary who was six years old when the awful slaughter in Damascus deprived him of both parents. The majority of successful business men of the Syrian race in our Lake cities date their coming, or that of their parents, to the year 1882. Syrians are known to have first entered New Orleans in 1887; and Syrian peddlers were roaming North Dakota in 1888. The immigrants of this period were largely of the peasant class, many of whom however have attained honorable positions in the land of their adoption. For example, we read:



PIONEER SYRIAN IMMIGRANTS TO AMERICA—PROFESSOR JOSEPH ARBEELY, HIS SIX SONS AND NIECE

At an international conference held three years ago in Boston, attended by fourteen hundred delegates, one of the most interesting speakers was a Syrian pastor of a mid-western American church. This pastor is the son of a Labanon peasant, a quarryman, who by such sacrifices as only those who have been in Syria can understand, managed to give his son a year and a half of schooling in one of the large preparatory schools of the American Mission. He was unable to send him to college, however, and eventually the youth found his way to America, landing in New York without a cent. Engaging in business, he pursued his studies as best he could, until finally he was able to enter a theological seminary. In eighteen months he completed the three years' course and was ordained.

Many Syrians reaped a good harvest at the Chicago Exposition, but lost it all in the mid-winter exposition at San Francisco. They remained in this country, and have long since recouped their losses. Between 1860 and 1893 several economic causes were responsible for the Syrian emigration to the United States. Among these were the competition of Japan in the export of silk, that of Egypt in the manufacture of tobacco, and the failure of Baring Brothers.

The exact estimate of the Syrian population of the United States awaits the reports of the census of 1910. For the years 1899-1907,

the estimate of the best-informed Syrians places the number at 70,000. Diseases of the eye, which are so common in Syria as to be little heeded, have resulted in the rejection of thousands of would-be settlers in the United States. Of 4648 Syrians turned back from our ports in nine years, 1578, or nearly 33 per cent., were debarred on account of "loathsome and contagious diseases," of which it may be safely assumed that the majority were diseases of the eye. There are three Syrian colonies in New York, one of which is the poorest in the country. The other two (both in Brooklyn Borough) are "superior to most immigrant colonies, of whatever people, in any part of the United States." Boston has the second largest group, numbering about 3000 Syrians, who are said to be "more clannish than any other immigrants, except Jews."

In the lake cities the Syrian colonists are comparatively prosperous and generally respected. In Buffalo most of them live in a restricted district of two blocks near the outskirts of the city. The Cleveland Syrians are not as well housed. In Toledo nearly all the Syrian families are separately housed.

ELECTRIFYING A CANADIAN PROVINCE

"A CANADIAN Highway of Power" is the title given by Clayton M. Jones to his paper in the *Canadian Magazine*. He says that the city of Berlin, Ontario, enjoys the distinction of being the first city in the world to receive electric energy transmitted over a hundred miles at the great pressure or potential of 110,000 volts. Last winter evidently marked the beginning of a new era for the Province of Ontario. Berlin received her Niagara power on October 11, 1910. On December 20 the city streets of London were officially lighted with Niagara energy. London thenceforward received electricity at 4½ cents a kilowatt hour, cutting the former



MR. P. W. SOTHMAN

(Engineer of the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Berlin, Ontario)

price of electric current in half, and getting the cheapest electric light in America.

THE LONGEST TRANSMISSION LINE
IN THE WORLD

On December 21 the button was pressed at Hamilton which turned on the Niagara power. Immediately the pumps of the water-works system began to work, the motor began to run, and the lights began to burn. Mr. Beck, chairman of the Hydro-Electric Power Commission of Ontario, which was incorporated by the Legislature in 1905, stated that the Commission's transmission line was 376 miles long, with tributary lines of 100 miles, making it the longest transmission line in the world.

Ontario's supply of "white coal" consists of a multitude of large and small water powers, aggregating 7,231,787 horsepower. The cash value, estimated on the basis of three dollars a ton for coal, would be \$180,000,000. The total crop output of Ontario in 1908 was only \$164,000,000. The saving effected by use of the white coal instead of the black works



SOME OF THE TRANSMISSION EQUIPMENT OF THE NEW
ONTARIO ELECTRIC LINE

out at \$20 a year for every horse-power, or an aggregate possible annual saving of \$60,000,000. At present even Ontario receives 514,000 horse-power in electricity, and so is saved from importing 7,250,000 tons of coal. The making and branching of the line is thus described:

The line has required about 500 tons of aluminum cables, and about 7500 tons of steel have been used in some 3200 towers. It starts from the transforming station at Niagara Falls, where the voltage is increased from 12,000 volts to 110,000 volts. The initial installation was for 30,000 kilowatts. From Niagara Falls the line extends in a northwesterly direction about fifty miles to Dundas, at which point it divides. One line about forty miles long extends in an easterly direction to Toronto, while two others go westerly to London; the northern of the latter two branches covers about 120 miles, and the southern about seventy-five miles. From London the line proceeds westerly to St. Thomas, about fourteen miles. An additional extension to Windsor, about 100 miles, has been subsequently made. The poles are galvanized steel angle iron towers, spaced at a distance of 550 feet, and on curves of 100 feet. The towers are fixed in the ground by means of framed steel anchored six feet below the surface. The height of the towers is sixty-five feet except over the Wel-

In laying out their lines, the engineers have paralleled the roadways as much as possible, and all the crossways are protected by mesh construction. The towers used in this work are of light, but substantial, design. They were thoroughly tested before being finally adopted by the Commission. The normal span between towers on the level is 550 feet. The long tower line is about 276 miles long, and approximately 3000 towers were required for the work of construction. At the end of the Toronto line, difficulty was met in obtaining a right-of-way into the city, and, as a result, the engineers were forced to erect twenty towers along the water-front, and these were placed on massive concrete piers.

As yet, however, the work of electrifying Ontario is but beginning. Wherever twenty farmers went to a county council and requested the erection of a distribution line, the Commission would erect the low-tension lines, tapping the main transmission high-voltage lines, and construct the low-tension feeders to the residences of the farmers:

The next departure will be the distribution and use of electrical energy on farms in old Ontario. It will be used for heating, lighting, and for running machinery, especially stationary machinery.



WHERE THE ELECTRIC POWER LINE CROSSES THE DUNDAS VALLEY

land Canal, where 150 feet clearance was allowed for the passage of vessels. The insulators are of the disk suspension type, five disks being employed for each conductor, which is of stranded aluminum wire. On the highest point of the towers is arranged a grounded cable for lightning protection.

When a province covering 219,650 square miles derives light and power from Niagara and other waterfalls, we are evidently advanced considerably nearer to the ultimate electrification of the planet for utilitarian purposes.

THE RENAISSANCE OF THE CRESCENT

THREE years ago there appeared a book with the title "The Decline of the Crescent," which was intended to demonstrate the approaching ruin of the Ottoman Empire. It produced a certain sensation at the time and was profitably exploited by a Frenchman and an Italian, it having been translated into all the European languages. A German writer, Dr. Earnest Jaeckh of Heilbronn, has now come out with a counterblast entitled "The Revival of the Crescent, an Historical Sketch of the Turkish Revival," which tries to prove that there is a great future before the Turkish empire under its present Moslem ruler. This work is significantly dedicated to Marshal von der Goltz, the German officer who has done so much to strengthen Turkey by his long years of work in reorganizing its army and creating a general staff after the German model. Dr. Jaeckh was in Turkey during the revolution of 1908 and the later insurrection of April, 1909, and subsequently traveled over the entire length of the Bagdad Railway line, on his return accompanying the army sent to suppress the Albanian rising in 1910. His book is the result of his observations and notes made during those years, and is conceived in a spirit of optimism based on the character of the Turk for honesty, sobriety and fidelity, quite apart from his bravery as a soldier.

An extract from the volume explains perhaps better than any diplomatic argument the real policy of Germany in taking up the position she has toward Turkey. Dr. Jaeckh says:

The policy of Germany follows the advance of the locomotives. Into all the regions traversed by them they carry German merchandise, cloths, arms, and machinery; they bring German engineers to construct railways and irrigation works; they will also go to bring back the wheat, the wool and the cotton of the fertile plains of Anatolia, Syria and Mesopotamia, the most fertile lands of the Ottoman Empire. It is perhaps the emancipation of Germany, which, to-day, is still tributary to America. It will be for Germany the assurance of its supply of wheat by way of Constantinople in case of war or blockade. And everywhere the whistle of the German locomotive is heard, there will the camel, which hampers transport by making it dearer, fall back. The Arab horses of the nomads will disappear, and the Bedouin pillager will lay down his murderous gun to turn to the productive plough, a result almost automatic, infallible. By the same means the Turkish Government, by the Anatolian, Bagdad and Hedjaz railways, once they are linked together, assures itself of the submission of the Arab tribes and its defensive force against British Indo-Egypt.

Regarding the Bagdad Railway, Dr. Jaeckh cites the opinions of the Ottoman statesmen Mahmoud Chevket Pacha and Djavid Bey, in which they have described it as the dorsal spine of the new Turkey, undoubtedly so from the point of view of its economic and military advantages. As the country has been opened by it, it has paid its tribute in wheat, wine, opium, cotton, silk and fruits, and in some cases the harvests have increased threefold, and transport has diminished in some cases seventy-five per cent. The population has increased, particularly by immigration from the lost provinces, and the revenue from tithes has tripled in amount. In this way the Turkish Government has not only been able to pay the kilometric guarantee on the cost of the line, but in the course of the past ten years has realized a surplus of \$3,500,000. Last year, 1910, the rolling stock sufficed to carry the quantity of agricultural products calling for transport.

The political aspect of the situation created by these new railways in Asiatic Turkey, as Dr. Jaeckh sees it, is perhaps even more interesting than the commercial and military. It is no less than a Turko-Austro-German entente which, stretching from Hamburg and Berlin by Vienna and Budapest to Constantinople and Bagdad, will act as a "barrier against Russian Panslavism as well as against the mole-burrowing work of the British in Arabia and Persia." The community of interests places Turkey alongside of Austria, and he asserts, probably with authority, that the military calculations of Turkey include the Austrian fleet, while that of Turkey holds only a secondary place. In any case this work of Dr. Jaeckh is bound to exercise a considerable influence on European opinion concerning the New Turkey, while for Americans the frank avowal of one of the objects of the construction of the Bagdad Railway has very material interest.

Freemasonry and the Late Crisis in Turkey

About the crisis in Turkey which in May last caused the resignation of the Ministers of Finance, Public Instruction and others, and seemed likely to end in the break-up of the cabinet and a second counter revolution, the accounts that were published at the time afforded little light. In a general way it was understood that a struggle of almost a revolutionary character was going on within the

Party of Union and Progress, that it had broken up into three sections, Conservatives, Liberals and Radicals, and might at any moment go to pieces and so lose the controlling influence it exercised in the Ottoman parliament. The alarm at Constantinople became all the greater when one of the most distinguished of the military leaders of the revolution came out with a public pronouncement in connection with the agitation within the party, and there were fears of the army being used for political purposes. Sadik Bey, the officer in question, had, it seems, been carried away with the idea that the Committee of Union and Progress was dominated by the Freemasons among its members and that the government was selling the country to the Jews. With him was a certain Medjidi Mollah and others who, because of the formation of Jewish colonies in Syria and Palestine and the Zionist propaganda in a book by a M. Ouchiskine who assumed the title of "Jewish Prince," took alarm or feigned it, and called for a commission of inquiry. This the government refused, seeing the danger it would inevitably open up, the movement having assumed a distinctly anti-Semitic form and the terms Freemason and Jew having become almost synonymous.

It came out in the course of the discussion in the Turkish press that Freemasonry has been for a long time in existence in Turkey. Lodges have been formed in Arabia and Syria under English influences without any one taking offense, but those founded after the revolution are being attacked as instruments of atheism and anarchy, and the question was asked why this was. The interesting point in the whole matter was that the first insinuations that led to the agitation came from Egypt, and Colonel Sadik Bey made himself the mouthpiece of it, unfortunately for himself. His disclaimer, made in his public declaration that the army should not in any way be mixed in political affairs, did not save him, for, acting with the resolution and promptitude that are characteristic of him, Mahmoud Chevketa Pacha, the Minister of War, forestalled Sadik Bey's resignation of his commission in the army by retiring him from the service. On the same day, May 24, that this announcement was made, Constantinople papers published a communiqué from the War Office as follows:

Mahmoud Chevketa Pacha, Minister of War, has addressed a circular dated the 23d of the current month to all the inspectors of Army Corps, of the reserves, and the commandants of independent divisions, warning the army to attend strictly to its

military duties and not mix itself in politics. All those who, forgetting their military obligations, concern themselves with political affairs will be punished with all the rigors of the law.

It is a notable fact that while a section of the European press was doing all it could to fan the flames, a Bulgarian paper, the *Mir*, of Sofia, alone seemed to gauge the crisis accurately. It said:

The internal differences of the Young Turk party, having the character of private controversies, are not of a nature to bring about a disintegration of the party. The specter of reaction will hover for a long time yet over the country and will force the wiser ones to maintain the party union. The Young Turk régime has realized incontestably more of liberty and order than the Hamidian rule. The events at Constantinople prove that the Committee is not a "Mafia," but a party having liberal principles and progressive tendencies. No cabinet will be able to exist without the support of the Young Turk party.

The Sultan's Visit to Macedonia and Albania

The most important event in Turkey during the past few months was Sultan Mehmed V's journey to Macedonia and Albania, a hitherto unheard of innovation in Turkish politics. It is considered by the Young Turkish press to have had a great political influence on the attachment of all rebellious elements to the throne of Osman and, indirectly, may modify the view of some European chancelleries as to the fidelity of the Sultan's subjects.

The Sultan made his trip accompanied, as a Constitutional sovereign, by most of his ministers, the Grand-Vizier and many of the deputies of the Parliament, on board the battleship *Barbaross-Haireddin*. The entire fleet was reviewed near Salonika.

The reception and enthusiasm were great and of the usual Oriental splendor. Salonika and Monastir—the cradles of the Ottoman liberty—as well as Uskub and Prishtina, centers of Moslem Albanians, were visited. Perhaps the most impressive and most important part of the trip were the different "Selamliks"—Friday imperial prayers—given at Salonika and on the plain of Kossovo, where the Turks have repeatedly fought on their march of conquest toward central Europe. Thousand of Albanians, who a year ago were up in arms against the Sultan's government journeyed amid hardships for days, and prayed side by side with the Caliph of all Islam, in the open air, listening to the call of the muezzins and chanting in unison. When, at the end of the prayer, the Grand-Vizier read a general amnesty for Christian and Moslem political prisoners in the presence of all these faithful and more than 15,000 soldiers of all arms, the staging was successful and the real aim of the Sultan's trip attained. At the door of Europe, a huge population swore allegiance and fidelity to its sovereign and Caliph, the best guaranty of status

quo and peace in the Balkans. During his trip the Sultan, who understands perfectly his rôle, conducted himself as a constitutional monarch, was as democratic as the first Caliphs, generous to all and had words of thanks to the various missions, which almost every large city of the Empire had sent to greet him.

The radical daily of Constantinople, the *Jeune-Turc*, expresses the general opinion in these words:

For many years Europe has been mistaken in confounding the Turkish people with its sovereign and Turkish energy with the acts of its government. . . . In an outburst, which will remain proverbial, that people broke all connections with the past, deposed Abdul-Hamid and his régime and spoiled the beautiful plan for dismemberment arranged by our enemies. After a lethargy of a half century the Turk gained back his forces and continuing the traditions of Suleiman Pasha, the illustrious son of the Vizier Okran, the first conqueror of Rumelia, proved to the world that he was and would remain a European nation and power. Those great-great-grandchildren of those who defeated the allied armies of Europe, the conquerors of the days of Nicopolis, Varna, Kossovo, and St. Syndighi, of those who vanquished the knights, the Hunyadis and others, were certainly able to accomplish their new task. . . . The voyage of Mehmed V to Rumelia, to Salonika, to Monastir, Uskub, and his pilgrimage to the battleground of Kossovo, forever glorious, constitutes the crowning of this work, the consolidation of the new régime.

Record of the Present Turkish Parliament

The next session of the Turkish Parliament will meet in the fall. The closing days of its last session were marked by a contest between the Senate and the Lower House over the question of the budget. Commenting on the work done by Parliament during the past session, the *Jeune-Turc* says:

Rich in noisy scenes, it was poor in useful work. It has used much more the power of control on the government, by questions and interpellations, than filled its duty to legislate. . . . The party of the majority could, with a little more cohesion, more understanding of its duties, do more useful work. . . . We are novices in the application of this new régime, because, after six centuries of absolutism, and thirty-three years of a terrible despotism, we have only three years of parliamentary experience. . . . Still, although she carries the weight of centuries, and has no experience, Turkey has not sensibly suffered, and her new régime has succeeded better than some others. Compare our parliament with the one of Russia, which had a Constitution two years before us. Although Russia has a higher culture, she has lost everything she obtained from despotism and while the Russian Duma is only a fiction of a Parliament, Turkey has not only conserved her full constitutional rights, but has revised them in a more liberal sense. This proves that our new régime has a great future. It is unique in the history of the Orient, that our first Chamber should have reached almost the end of its period, without being dissolved.

VAN'T HOFF THE CHEMIST

"THE death of van't Hoff removes one of the leading men of science not only of this age, but of all time." This would be high praise for any man; but no one can say that in the present instance it is not entirely justified. The passage just quoted is the opening paragraph of a sympathetic sketch of his former teacher by Prof. Harry C. Jones of Johns Hopkins University, contributed by him to the *Popular Science Monthly*.

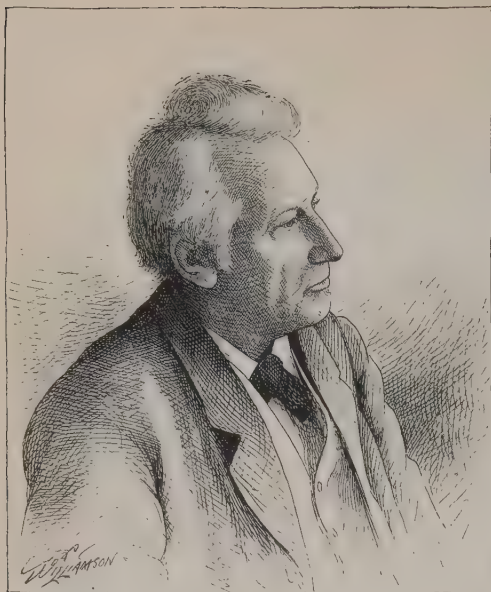
Jacobus Henricus van't Hoff, the son of a physician in Rotterdam, was born in 1852, and received his early education in the Realschule of that city and at the Polytechnikum at Delft. At twenty he had finished his work at Leyden University, and, after further study at Bonn and Paris, he obtained his doctor's degree at Utrecht when only twenty-two. He was called to Amsterdam in 1877 as lecturer in chemistry, was appointed professor in that subject the following year, remaining there till 1896, when he went to Berlin to fill a chair which had been created specially for him, and which he continued to occupy till his death on March 1 of this present year.

In 1901 he was awarded the Nobel prize in chemistry. Professor Jones says:

Van't Hoff did three great things. He raised and answered the question, what is the arrangement in three dimensions in space of the atoms in the simpler compounds of carbon? . . . Some compounds of carbon rotate the beam of polarized light to the right; others to the left—are "optically active," as they are termed. Pasteur had pointed out that this is possible only in compounds in which there is some kind of asymmetry. Van't Hoff showed in what the asymmetry consisted. He showed that all optically active compounds of carbon then known contain a carbon atom in combination with four different atoms or groups; and the same holds true to-day. Such a carbon atom is known as an "asymmetric carbon atom"; and thus arose the theory of the "asymmetric tetrahedral carbon atom," which has been the philosophy of organic chemistry for the past thirty-five years, and the guiding thought in practically all of the best work in organic chemistry from 1874 to the present time.

Van't Hoff's second great work had also to do primarily with the chemistry of carbon. Quoting Professor Jones further:

In 1867 the Norwegian physicist Guldberg and his son-in-law Waage, the chemist, announced the



JACOBUS H. VAN'T HOFF

law of the effect of mass or quantity on chemical reaction—the law of mass action. . . . Van't Hoff shortly after the publication of his brief paper of eleven pages in Dutch on "The arrangement of the Atoms in Space," took up experimentally the study of the velocities of chemical reactions and the conditions of chemical equilibria from the standpoint of the law of mass action. He . . . carried out an elaborate series of investigations in which the law of mass action was applied to a large number of chemical reactions, and shown to hold. The results of this work were published under the French equivalent of "Studies in Chemical Dynamics." In this work the whole subject of chemical dynamics and chemical equilibrium was placed upon a scientific basis, and for the first time.

The third and what Professor Jones characterizes as the greatest work of van't Hoff had to do with the relation between solutions and gases.

Through his colleague, the botanist, De Vries, the attention of van't Hoff was called to the osmotic pressure measurements that had been made by the botanist, Wilhelm Pfeffer. . . . Van't Hoff showed that the laws of gas-pressure apply to the osmotic pressure of solutions of non-electrolytes, *i. e.* those substances whose aqueous solutions do not conduct the current. He also pointed out that the laws of gas-pressure do not apply to the osmotic pressure of a single electrolyte—a single acid, base, or salt. . . . The question arises, Why is it so important to have shown that the laws of gas-pressure apply to the osmotic pressure of solutions? We know more about matter in the gaseous state than in any other state of aggregation. We can deal with gases from the standpoint of the only exact branch of science—mathematical physics—and van't Hoff showed that we can deal with solutions in the same manner.

This raises the further question, Why is it so important to have a satisfactory theory as to the nature of solutions? A moment's thought will furnish the answer. The whole science of chemistry is a branch of the science of solutions. Similarly, the biological sciences are dependent upon solution for their existence; and geology, in dealing with both the sedimentary and the igneous rocks, is vitally concerned with solution in the broader sense of that term. There are, then, few branches of natural science that are not dependent upon solution for their existence.

Of the personal side of the great scientist, Professor Jones says: "He was one of the most modest, frank, honest, and unselfish of men." And he predicts that his teacher's name will go down in the history of science along with those of the very greatest.

DELINQUENT WOMEN AND THE DOUBLE STANDARD OF MORALITY

READERS of the REVIEW will remember a striking article noticed in this section of last month's issue under the title "Where Men Should Play Fair." That article dealt with men's unfairness in the marriage relation. In the *International Journal of Ethics* there is an equally thoughtful and courageously outspoken paper, entitled "The Written Law and the Unwritten Double Standard." The writer deals with the problem of delinquent women and what has been described as "the unmarried half-world." The writer, Miss Ada Eliot Sheffield, brings to the discussion of her subject the experience of a dozen years in philanthropic work and invaluable information acquired at first hand in the capacity of

court probation officer; and several of her conclusions, though somewhat discouraging to optimists, appear to be unchallengeable. The problem of the delinquent woman, she says, resolves itself into the problem of the social evil.

When there is no question of improper relations with men, the mildest penal measure—probation—will, as a rule, bring shoplifters or dishonest servants back to the straight path. . . . As soon as the other sex shares in a girl's wrongdoing, the problem becomes as complex as society itself. The pressure on any weak girl to indulgence with men is so much stronger than any other temptation she meets, that her lack of moral standard usually manifests itself in this way and with a terrible persistence. Her own nature and circumstances may give impulses in this direction for which she her-

self is not to blame. A girl is bound to enjoy admiration, and to like men for their own sake. She may have an injudicious mother, or no mother or home at all. Her work may be monotonous and ill-paid. Increasing the force of every other temptation is the disheartening fact that she can earn more money by the sale of her self-respect than by any other gifts of mind or character. . . . Finally, if she once falls, her shame bars her from respectable companionship wherever it is known.

It is these causes, continuously operative in society, that make of the delinquent girl a question of the highest civic importance. The best intentioned charity may do actual harm by confining its view to only one phase of it. Some social workers will fall into the fallacy of thinking they touch the social evil itself by striking at some one of its numerous manifestations.

The importation of alien women, for instance, is a peculiarly revolting feature of the evil, yet the radical danger to society lies in prostitution itself and not merely in the "white slave" traffic. The report of the Immigration Commission states that "to the motive of business profit is due beyond question the impulse that creates and upholds this traffic. . . . But from where does the money-profit come? One would be glad to escape the fact that if all the men in any city, who are following respectable callings, should combine to boycott the business, the practice itself as well as the traffic would quickly languish. The large amount of money which goes into this vice indicates why delinquent girls offer so difficult a problem. Their support must, in the nature of things, come mainly from men who have money to spend—from fairly steady working men, or from the well-to-do. A New York prostitute from a raided house said to a lady who urged her to leave that life: "If you well-to-do women would keep your husbands and sons at home, there wouldn't be any women like us."

The writer under notice gives voice to some very decided views. For example:

When it comes to the attraction between a man and a woman, it is a nice question to decide which is originally responsible. Half the time the parties themselves do not know. . . . Anyone who has had opportunity to study prostitution will agree that he is a sanguine person who hopes to see in his own lifetime any appreciable lessening of the evil. One may even doubt whether the time will ever come when populous communities will be free from it. . . . The men about a criminal court take the prostitution of a certain proportion of women as a matter of course, a necessity. They no more doubt it than they doubt the necessity for air or for food. They never question the double standard of morality which condones the man and ostracizes the woman. They would probably admit that indulgence is wrong for a man, just as they would agree that a white lie is not perfectly right. But no one expects to go through life without telling some white lies. It is a beautiful ideal, but impracticable. So with men's chastity, a beautiful ideal—for the saints.

Miss Sheffield frankly asserts that the present laws of uncompromising repression are unenforceable. "Why is it," she asks, "that while women are arrested by hundreds for soliciting on the streets, the same act on the part of a man, though stamped as a misdemeanor on the statute books, is practically never punished?"

For two blocks from a high-grade Raines Law hotel near where I lived in New York, men would every evening station themselves at intervals on either side of the street, watching and waiting for some responsive woman. A decent woman could not cast an unguarded glance without bringing some fellow toward her. Yet in the two years and a half for which I worked in the courts of that city I never knew of a man's being even arrested for such an offense. Public opinion does not demand it, and indeed it would be quite out of sympathy with such a course on the part of the police. . . . Given the double standard of morals, laws which undertake to repress the social evil are on the face of it futile. This being the case, is it to be wondered at that corruption in the police force follows in the trail of vice?

What measures, then, looking toward restraint of the evil is it possible to enforce? The system of placing women and houses under sanitary restrictions and that of segregation are dismissed as having proved unsatisfactory. An alternative is proposed:

If license and segregation are disallowed, may not some modification of the existing system make for more actual repression than at present, while lessening the opportunities for blackmail? Soliciting on the streets, practising prostitution in tenement houses, any outward disorder or advertisement on the part of brothels, are public nuisances, and should be punished as such. But when prostitution goes on in houses given over to that purpose, houses which commit no overt offense, does not practical wisdom advise that it should be left to itself? Society being what it is, why should a girl, unless very young, be sent to a prison or reformatory simply for being a prostitute? . . . The male partners of her sin keep the respect of the world. To add a penalty to her outcast state is to aggravate an injustice.

This writer considers the subject under discussion to be one which concerns the relation of every woman with the men she knows best and has the most influence over. It does not mean that any woman need break through the bounds of delicacy to be sincere. It certainly is no more indelicate to discuss such a question seriously with men than to attend the theater with them to see "Camille," for instance, or "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray." A man who can see either of those plays without having his ideas of the relation of men and women shaken to the depths needs sincere talk from a high-minded woman.

THE MISUNDERSTOOD MAN IN GERMANY

IT is a cry of Ariadne that comes from Berlin, or to be more modern, the plaint of Hedda Gabler, whose Hofrat has grown critical toward her and whose husband prefers to her society even the correction of his rival's manuscripts. The affairs of the German woman are in a parlous state. Though she bears up bravely we can see she is inwardly downcast. And who can refuse her sympathy? All the wit and philosophy of Annette Kolb in the *Neue Rundschau* hardly hide her dismay. Forget-me-not eyes and tendrils of gold hair blowing over pink cheeks, figures as slim as a lieutenant's, are in vain. Charm she ne'er so wisely, Mephistopheles, Faust and Hermann are no more. One is tempted to remark they are Flying Dutchmen. But in sight of such distress, levity is misplaced. But Fräulein Kolb is also sprightly as she relates the decline and fall of the Heddian Empire.

"Our Aunt Nora is not yet so old—she who with flying colors and amid the applause of all Christendom ran away from her husband and children and the Doll's House. And with such unprecedented success that for two decades an endless procession of us who did not want to be understood by our husbands, followed suit. Indeed we not rarely married with that intention and came back as *incomprises* from the honeymoon. The prettier we were, the more *incomprise* we were allowed to be and the more eager other men were to consider us as fathomless and to fathom us. And we needed to contribute nothing more than assent to all they imagined of us, and we needed to interest ourselves for nothing except for the interest we inspired. It was most awfully nice!

"But ah! with what a violent jerk the tables were turned on us! Was the man tired of the game? Did it bore him one fine day or had he, too, often gone astray in his idle guessing? I do not know. But suddenly he found it more exciting to be misunderstood himself, and at once he went in to be misunderstood with that inborn thoroughness which the nine gymnasial classes so plainly show, and which will not be in our bone and fiber for many a long day to come. We women had only been *incomprises* for a season, but he will not be understood at all. He comes, takes the lovely pose away and is the only *incomprise* all to himself. In the meantime, we must give up the game as lost, for the partner is lacking. Just the youngest and most charming women are

to-day as neglected and isolated as if they were still confined to the hearth and home. Not that appreciation for them is wanting. On the contrary, no one will understand them so well and discover such exquisite and fitting praise for them as the Misunderstood Man. The worship he pays them no one before would have shown a woman without feeling all fire and flame for her. But do not fancy that he glows for her! When he goes to see her he never forgets—the opera glass held wrong side up to see her at a distance no matter how near she may stand to him. His fire is snuffed out in this analytic process. She will never find him so far away, so frosty, indeed so disinclined, as after he has just recited a litany of adoration. For with that he dismissed her from his heart. And so he verily takes off his hat before her—but at the same time he takes leave.

"And this man we must love to-day—*faute de mieux*, for another is not there! The Don Juan type is outranked or become *paterfamilias*. The Misunderstood Man has no impulse to higher flights, but is resting from the beautiful things he so long stood champion for, as the weariness felt during a long hot march only comes home to the soldier after the halt has sounded. So he now prefers cool, shadowy paths of feeling, that divide to end quickly or to split off into side paths. His eyes have grown too sensitive to endure shimmering far-off horizons of 'vocations' or different points of view. With fevered hand he waves aside all talk of general ideas, goals, sowings and reapings and ideals and enthusiasm with all the overdue payments that too often outlive her. To 'wine, woman and song' he holds quite other relations than hitherto and his bonds to music have grown as slight as to women. But all this—his unproductivity with the rest—is as little definitive, as little a finale as the held note before the next measure. I propose that he be not disturbed. People are not very different from fashions. She who yesterday raised outcry against hobble skirts wears to-day no others. Their virtue lies in the fact that they educate us to good carriage and to the cult of the silhouette, and in this, they resemble to a hair—with all respect—the Misunderstood Man. Therefore it is wiser to adapt ourselves to him, nay—even to be enchanted with him. For he (and not the man nor the skirt of yesterday, whatever their virtues may have been) is to-day the given equation."

Fräulein Kolb finally exhorts her sorely-tried sisters to employ well the time of tribulation that they may stand alone against the jubilant day when the recreant tires of his grim solitude and the bugles call truce of misunderstanding. But we are sad for the approved shade of blue eyes that must fade over Kant and Schlegel and the wisps of corn-colored hair that will blow unseen at Verein

lectures on Richard Strauss and Wedekind. It is not the cry of Ariadne, it is more "Come over and help us." Could not the University of Chicago send to Berlin a breezy girl graduate to take the chair of management of the Eternal Masculine? Or even an exchange for a Hedda Gabler tried and proven in the fire of adversity might benefit American husbands.

PRESENT-DAY POLITICAL PARTIES IN GERMANY

A SURVEY of the condition of political parties in Germany presents no refreshing spectacle, writes Dr. Karl von Stengel, professor of jurisprudence at the University of Munich, and author of various works of a political and legal nature, in a recent article in the *Deutsche Revue*. Aside from the consideration that the very fact of the existence of so many parties and factions is "a disagreeable phenomenon," it is a matter of grave moment, further comments the learned professor, that one party, the Socialist,

does not pretend to take its stand upon the existing order, but aims at the overthrow of private and public rights; while another, the Center, under ultramontane influence, assumes in many ways a hostile attitude to our modern public institutions, and will not acknowledge the supremacy of the sovereign state over all religious associations—and, therefore, over the Catholic Church as well. To this must be added the hatred displayed by the different parties to each other—even by the so-called citizens' parties; that is, those that ought to band together to combat the socialists.

To confirm this, continues Dr. von Stengel, one need only to observe the constant war waged by many Liberal papers against the "Agrarians," "Junker," and "Ostelbier" [Prussians east of the Elbe.]

They are represented as people who wish to exploit all government laws and institutions solely for their own benefit, totally disregarding the interests of the community. The Conservatives do, to be sure, deserve the reproach of having repeatedly—notably in case of the financial reform of 1909—insisted too strongly upon the interests of the great landowners. But, on the other hand, the fact that the Liberals have but too often considered the interests of mobile capital, and especially of the Bourse, exclusively, may be cast up against them. It should, besides, be borne in mind that the Conservative party is nationalist, heart and soul, and has always stood up for strengthening the power of the government, and of what significance the Prussian aristocracy, the Junker so much reviled, has been in the development not alone of Prussia but of Germany as a whole. It is difficult to conceive, on the other hand, why the Con-

servatives, who are under the sway of the landholders, should so often have antagonized the Liberals, even though the latter may be accused of favoring mobile capital and the Bourse, since both parties are nationalist and are not divided by irreconcilable differences; they should consider that instead of rending each other, they should join in a common cause against the Socialists.

How the evils connected with the German political party system may be remedied, this writer finds it difficult to say, "particularly, since political parties are not the arbitrary creations of individual statesmen or politicians but the natural outgrowth of economic, social, and political conditions."

It is a noteworthy fact that the existing parties actually represent, in the main, the various economic and social interests; the Liberals, mobile capital; the Conservatives, landed property; the Socialists, the laboring classes; the Center, sectarian interests, and that in spite of it, new organizations have quite lately been forming which represent more particularly still the interests of economic and social groups—as the Landlords' Union, the Peasants' Union, the Hanseatic League, the Middle-Class League. It is quite obvious that party formations will be increasingly influenced by these combinations, particularly as questions of constitutional rights, which formerly were decisive in the organization and aims of political parties, have retreated before economic and social problems.

Whatever form the future evolution of the party system may assume, it is most desirable, in the opinion of Dr. von Stengel, that the point should be reached when all German parties shall have a thoroughly national basis, "the existing order be made the immovable foundation of further development, and the nation in general gain a realizing sense of the demands which must arise in order to strengthen Germany's position externally and internally."

For the present, the writer concludes, it must be said that the situation of the parties is a depressing one.

The mistake committed in connection with the financial reform of 1909—not by the Conservatives alone but by the Liberals as well—in rejecting the propositions, so eminently worthy of consideration, of the Bundesrat, aroused a mutual bitterness among the so-called citizens' parties which will most probably have serious consequences in the next elections to the Reichstag. Nevertheless, one

must not despair. Political intelligence has grown among the Germans, and notably in the Reichstag as well, in the last decades. This has been evidenced by the fact that the proposals of the Bundesrat aimed at strengthening the army and navy, no longer meet with the opposition they encountered twenty-five years ago. The Conservatives should coöperate with the Liberal Right.

THE AMAZONS—FACT OR FABLE?

AMONG the many legends of ancient Greece few have provided subject matter for more discussion than that of the race of Amazons. To call them a feminine race would be erroneous; for the qualities for which their very name stands as a synonym were as unfeminine as could possibly be imagined. For a long time it was customary for the majority of archeologists to consider them as wholly fabulous; but researches in the history of social and family life, and the acceptance of certain successive epochs therein, have led to the reconsideration of the statements of early writers on developments in history which, at first sight, seem open to doubt. Among these developments, writes Lina Eckenstein in the *Englishwoman* (London), is that which is associated with the Amazons, the first mention of whom, we are told, occurs in the *Iliad*, which, as is now known, received its present form in the ninth century before Christ. According to one passage in Homer,

the Amazons, some time before the siege of Troy, penetrated into Lycia in the southwest of Asia Minor, and were there beaten back by Bellerophon. . . . The poet Pindar described Bellerophon as rising on the winged steed Pegasus and attacking the Amazons from above. The other passage in the *Iliad* relates that the Amazons invaded Phrygia in the northwest of Asia Minor, and that they fought on the river Skamander against the allied Phrygians and Trojans at the time when King Priam of Troy was a young man. Strabo mentioned a hill on the plain of Ilium "which men called Batiaæa, but the immortals the tomb of Myrina, the bounding Amazon," so called from the rapidity with which she drove her chariot.

The peoples of antiquity had no doubt as to the existence of the Amazons. Serious-minded writers and accredited historians believed them to be truly historical. In the Painted Hall at Athens was a picture by Mikon representing Theseus and the Athenians fighting the Amazons. Other paintings on the same wall at Athens represented historical subjects such as the battle of Marathon, and the contest at Oenoe. The question then arises, says the *Englishwoman* writer, Are we justified in accepting the episode of

the defeat of the Amazons as historical also? A number of cities on the coast of Asia Minor dated their foundation to individual Amazons. The Amazonian settlements, concerning which detailed information is preserved, are

those which were situated on the plains of Thermodon, on the southern shore of the Black Sea. Certain women here, whose husbands were cut off in a marauding expedition, "laid aside all thoughts of marriage with their neighbours, calling it slavery, not matrimony." They killed the remaining men, henceforth managed things themselves. When at home they were occupied in performing with their own hands the work of ploughing, planting, pasturing cattle, and particularly in training horses. The strongest among them spent much of their time hunting on horseback, and practising martial exercises. The Amazons recruited their numbers either by receiving the strangers who came in a peaceful spirit, or by meeting men outside their home. . . . The Amazons of the Thermodon were under the joint rule of two queens.

This joint rule of two queens has a parallel in Chinese annals. Other women settlements are mentioned by later writers. Thus

there was the Maegdaland, the land of women of northern Europe, referred to in King Alfred's *Orosius*. Adam of Bremen in the eleventh century mentions settlements of women on the Baltic Sea. The inmates of these beat back the men who approached them, and they recruited their numbers by "mating with travellers, with the prisoners whom they made, and with monsters who are not rare in those parts," as the writer naïvely puts it.

The great river of South America, we are told in the article under review, was called the Amazon from the number of women settlements on its banks. Many writers, however, derive the name from an Indian word signifying "boat-destroyer," in allusion to the dangerous tidal waves at the river's mouth. Among the Greeks the word "Amazon" was a descriptive word, signifying "without a breast," in reference to an alleged custom of confining or searing the right breast in order that the use of the bow and arrow or the throwing of the javelin might not be interfered with. Although this view was widely

held, it is curious to notice that none of the paintings or sculptures of Amazons gives any evidence of this practice.

When Herodotus visited the Crimea in the fifth century before Christ, he "heard of contests between Greeks and the Amazons of the plains of Thermodon." The Sauromatai, on the northern shores of the Black Sea, traced their origin to Amazons who were carried off in a boat by Greeks and who slew all the men on board. Being wafted to northern shores, they there seized some horses and defended themselves successfully against the Scythians, who ultimately mated with them. Herodotus says of them: "Their rules of marriage are thus settled: no virgin is permitted to marry until she has killed an enemy; some of them, therefore, die of old age without being married, not being able to satisfy the law." In modern times we have the women warriors of Dahomey, the king of which country held, for the traveller Duncan, a review, first of 6000 and then of 8000 female soldiers.

Duly noticing the conflicts of the heroes of

Greece with the Amazons, the capture of their queen Antiope by Theseus, and the invasion of Greece by the Scythians and Amazons, the *Englishwoman* writer refers to the paintings and sculptures representing Amazons, all of which "lay stress on the martial valor and the physical beauty which the Greek of a later age associated with the women of the earlier period"; setting forth, it is true, the triumph of the men, but in a manner "bearing witness to the artists' sympathy with the defeated women." And she encourages her sisters of this present day in the following paragraph:

Later ages have viewed the Amazonian development sometimes with wonder, sometimes with suspicion, sometimes with admiration. But whenever occasion has offered in the course of history, individual women have proved themselves capable of personal valor and administrative power. There is, therefore, every reason to believe that the bad effects which centuries of degradation have brought may be overcome, and that the new generation of women will prove itself capable of restoring, under a new form, the independent spirit which animated their sisters in the far-away past.

THE SPIRIT OF THE JEW, AS SEEN BY A DANE

FEW tasks are more elusive than that of defining the spirit of a race. It is almost impossible to exclude judgment from such a definition, and judgments are as a rule emotional rather than intellectual—prompted less by reasoning from given facts, than by prejudices subtly connected with selfish interests. It is for this reason that all our attempts to define the spirit of the Jewish race have suffered from one-sided fault-finding, or equally one-sided praise. A serious effort to avoid both horns of this dilemma has been made by a Danish Lutheran minister, the Rev. I. Fauerholdt, writing for *Gads Danske Magazin* (Copenhagen), of his observation during several years of missionary activity among the Jews of southeastern Europe.

There the main faults and chief virtues of the Jews seem to be what they are alleged to be right in our own country: sharp practices in money matters and insatiable desire for knowledge. These are, at least, the points that every one meeting Jews in the regions visited by the Danish writer feels compelled to dwell on. But the Rev. Fauerholdt feels differently. His conclusions are that the fault is not so bad, the virtue not so good, as they appear on the surface. Taking up the fault first, he shows that the Jew, in his fondness for haggling, in his ability to drive

shrewd bargains, in his outright misstatements concerning the goods in which he is dealing, follows a custom that is universal throughout the Orient. He says on this point:

The usual "civilized" manner of doing business is practically unknown outside a limited part of the vast inhabited world. And it is hardly reasonable to reproach the Jews for doing what is customary throughout the Orient. What have tourists in Italy, for instance, not had to stand in the way of extortion merely because they were not familiar with the practices of haggling over every bargain! When we talk of extortion on the part of the Jewish merchant, we must first of all bear in mind that he never expects to get what he asks. And we talk of his cheating, we should remember that he, like everybody else in those parts, expects the customer to look out for himself. That I am right in these things is well proven by the fact that you never incur the enmity of a Jew by getting the better of him in a haggling match or a deal of any kind. On the contrary, that is the surest way of winning his respect and friendship. Nor is the haggling merely a means of satisfying the greed for money: it is a sport, a kind of tournament, where the most persistent wins.

Incidentally the Danish missionary points out with added emphasis, what others have indicated before him, namely that in regions where sexual vice, gluttony and drunkenness are the rule, the Jews, with but rare exceptions, remain moral and moderate in all their

habits. Turning to the generally recognized eagerness for study which seems nowadays to characterize the young Jew all over the world, the Rev. Fauerholdt feels again forced to make allowances, but this time in opposite direction. So far as he has found, the intellectual acquirements of the Jews are shallow, dissipated in useless argumentation, and productive of much unlovable arrogance. For all that, he has this to say:

"To study" is the Jewish expression for reading. "Culture" and "Science" are words constantly on his lips. "The Science"—as if there were only one—is a term of which he shows particular fondness. And what is studied is no longer *merely* the Talmud, not even *chiefly* that work. While the older man may still resort to that old fount of learning, his seventeen-year-old son—whom development corresponds with that of a western young man of twenty-five—and his nineteen-year-old daughter—who reminds me of a Danish woman of thirty—go

elsewhere in search of truth. The Jews have, always been a reading people. This, however, used to be true only of the men. Now it is just as true of the women. An ordinary Jewish truck driver in Russia often possesses an amount of knowledge that his Danish colleague would not even dream of striving after. And it would be little short of an insult to the young Jewish women employed in Russian factories to imagine them on the same moral and cultural level as similar workers among the women of Denmark.

The Danish writer does not try to formulate any definition of his own, by which the Jewish spirit might be placed and understood, but he pleads for a more systematic and more sympathetic study of that spirit as it finds utterance both in individual lives and in such racial phenomena as the vast and fruitful Yiddish literature which is now springing up in unlooked-for profusion all over southeastern Europe.

THE NOVALIS LETTERS: A DISCOVERY

FOR over a hundred years an envelope has wandered from one member to another of the von Lancizolle family of Stettin. Recently the Geheimrat von Lancizolle was struck by the postmark "Gotha, 1812" on the envelope, opened it and found a packet of autograph letters and poems of Novalis. The Geheimrat sent the packet to Ernst Heilborn, the editor of Novalis' works, and the contents are for the first time published in the May *Deutsche Rundschau*.

In October, 1794, Novalis went to Tennstedt in Thuringen to serve as assistant magistrate to the Kreisamtmann Just. The chief became the friend of the poet, then twenty-two, and in November accompanied him to Grüningen, the yellow castle where Novalis first met Sophie von Kühn. Just witnessed the dawn of the famous love-affair, and his niece, Caroline Just, was the recipient of this newly discovered packet of letters that reflect the alternating joys and doubts of Novalis' secret betrothal to Sophie von Kühn and again his fears for Sophie's life, his grief for her death, and final mystic submission.

In the first letter Novalis begs Caroline to make excuses to his friends at Tennstedt for his prolonged stay at Grüningen. "Only think, there is such a deep snow one can't get out of the house without endangering one's life! No wise man rashly risks his life. Many happy hours claim me still. I am, besides, not quite well—do you see what

I am driving at? I will not, I will—I must—I may—I can—stay here! 'Stay there!' you'll say, 'that's what I thought!' Don't ask me anything yet! I live—as if I had never lived before—in undisturbed content and in dulcet oblivion of all care."

In Grüningen there were merry-makings in sharpest contrast to the severe patriarchal tradition of Novalis' childhood—but he was drawn into the whirligig and some of the lightheartedness of the company is in the next letters, mischievously describing himself as Benedict and even paterfamilias, with postscripts of mock advertisements for nurses, children's old clothes, and other overflowings of high spirits. The relapse was not far off. Not only did the Grüningen gayety pass, but Sophie herself, the capricious child of so little delicacy of feeling—did not lastingly satisfy Novalis. He was able to see clearly in spite of the flights of his enthusiasm and his genius for loving. He writes to Caroline: "I hope for your permission and your uncle's to spend an hour with you every evening. Perhaps you can teach me means to bear dark hours and to look forward to happier ones—and not await them in the worst tortures that can be inflicted on a sensitive nature!"

Happiness spoke otherwise, but misfortune came, and called love back. In November, 1795, Novalis had the first serious warnings of Sophie's illness. Fears for her reawakened his consciousness—it cannot be

said of what he owned in Sophie, but what he desired to own in her. In a poem of the packet the lover sings again.

There are letters of calm and work, in which he speaks of the beauty of friendship, and one that touches on an episode in Caroline's life—the transfer of a young official to another town. "You have lost now a fine piece out of your life. It is something complete now—your friendship with him—rounded out, transparent and connected—stuff for numberless silent joys and reflections. A loss indeed, but count a little as well on the calm resignation, the ever more and more necessary leaning on your inner self, the firmer foothold on that that shall not pass away—the divine in us. It is no slight task to make unto one's self an artificial aim—but it is a poem. It needs indeed Sunday energy to be sufficient unto one's self and to grow at home in the world of ideas instead of in the world of the senses."

Later he says of Sophie, "I have so sunk my personality in her image that I take no breath but in her. This identity, fusion of our beings, grows every day. No *Schwärmerci*, for that I could throw down the gauntlet to a year-old husband! Only worship, unspeakable pleasure in her and wondrous dependence on her—not a trace of wild, unrecking passion." Novalis, still unsuspecting of possible separation from Sophie, sends a gay poem to Caroline, teasing her with her prolonged spinsterhood. In a second poem to Joy on Sophie's birthday he ends "Round our hearts Joy winds a wreath of evergreen"—the evergreen used in Germany for funeral wreaths as well—a bad omen.

On the 19th of March, 1797, Sophie von Kühn died from the effects of an operation. Novalis' long and unrestrained outpouring of grief five days after to Caroline is the most significant of the discovered letters. Beneath the rigid classicism of his style runs a molten current of desolation. Phrases linger on the ear as "My turning to stone comes with swift tread as ever evil comes upon us." "Memory is paralyzed by pain—I am as in a

trance, and everything so uneasily commonplace I often ask myself, 'Is it true?'"

"I shall never crush out the memory of her agony. Her martyrdom remains the crown of thorns of my remaining days. Would to God they be few!" "If my sorrow's slow flame utterly consume me till but a breath could scatter my body to ashes, would not Sophie's spirit aid me then to return to her?" "What avails it to be a loom of ideas, and love failing? For the living Beloved there is no substitute." "Grüningen, cradle of my better self, is only the solitary grave in the little churchyard to me now. The three ells of earth on her heaven-containing breast—only that fills the phantasy that of old swung aloft to what paradises!"

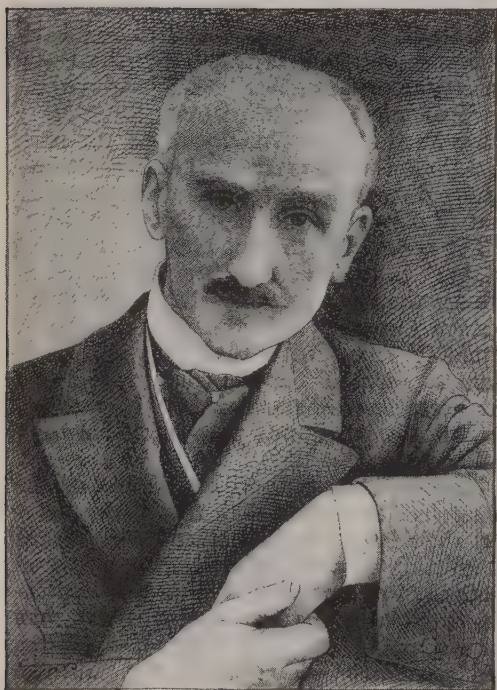
The proud "I need not blush for my love for her" is followed by bitter self-reproach. We see the inner struggle—the straining for perfected sorrow with the mystic hope of attaining union with the Beloved. As a plant to earth so Novalis clings to belief in the hereafter. His soul is laid bare to us, pathetically young and pure for all its compelling genius.

Herr Heilborn ends with a picture of the pious Just household with their daily prayers, their large charities, the ladies' lessons in knitting to poor children, and the warm motherly welcome of the Frau Kreisamtmännin to Novalis to whom, perhaps, only here came something of that peace whose restless and passionate seeker he was. "Strange folk, this Just pair, on whom all eyes were turned as they went through the Tennstedt streets. They were both misshapen. While she had a hump on the left shoulder, he had one on the right. And behind this quaint pair followed perhaps the pale, narrow-chested Novalis, and the consumptive Caroline—all bent on solemnly inaugurating—with a poem of course—a newly bought garden in this world-forgotten Thuringian village. And yet there was such intensity of life in these sickly beings that still to-day we are nourished by the crumbs that fall from their high festal board of ethereal passion."



HENRI BERGSON: PHILOSOPHER OR PROPHET?

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN



HENRI BERGSON

TO make straight for the point of this article: Why should, out of an unobtrusive and unknown French scholar like Prof. Henri Bergson, suddenly emerge a figure of world-wide interest and importance?

Ten years ago nobody dwelling outside the inner courts of organized knowledge paid the least attention to his sayings or doings. And to-day the whole civilized world is asking eagerly for the slightest details relating to his private or public life. His books—of which there are only four, not counting his doctor's thesis—have each reached six or seven editions in the original, and they are now being hurriedly translated into one language after another. His teachings are spreading like flames across a sun-scorched prairie. Everywhere laymen and learned alike feel compelled to define their intellectual, moral and artistic attitudes by reference to his ideas. We find him quoted as their spiritual authority by leaders of the Syndicalist labor movement in France and by the young Tory Democrats of England, by the Modernist reformers within the Catholic Church and by those audacious iconoclasts who, as Post-Impressionists, are startling the world with a new art form.

"He has been accepted by the Symbolists as the philosopher of the new idea," writes an English journalist in regard to the latest movement in

French poetry. And the same man informs us that "the intuitional philosophy of Bergson has so taken possession of Paris that the spirit of it seems to fill every place." All this superficial popularity might merely arouse suspicion as to the man's genuine power and scope as a thinker, but when we turn to the other side—to the world of expert opinion *par preference*—we meet with the same almost unanimous recognition of Bergson's place and influence. "His appearance in the field of philosophy promises to be a turning point in the history of human thought," writes a critic like G. R. T. Ross in the *London Nation*, and from innumerable other quarters the same note of unbounded enthusiasm is heard. Even when his ideas, as such, are bitterly opposed, the learning and ingenuity displayed in their presentation are ungrudgingly acknowledged.

In our search for causes capable of explaining this abrupt rise of a quiet thinker into world-circling fame it is of little use to speak of "fad-disms" and "passing fashions." For in the voice of Professor Bergson there is not one sensational note. He has taken no step to attract or hold the attention of the greater public—though he believes passionately in working and writing for nothing less than all men. In his attitude toward truth and its right of way against all selfish interests or established superstitions, he is as uncompromising as any other typical representative of his class. And in spite of his lucid prose, vivid power of illustration, and constant effort at clearness and conciseness, his writings are by no means easy reading to a mind not trained in the ways of systematic thinking. There is, in a word, every reason to assume that his position is founded on true merit, and that, whatever ebb or increasing flood his outward popularity may experience after this, his spirit will become indelibly stamped on the world's thought, so that after having passed through him that thought must for all future be different from what it was before he appeared.

To account for his extraordinary renown to-day, we must assume that his qualities and gifts and achievements are those of men like Descartes and Spinoza, Kant and Hegel, Schopenhauer and Comte, Spencer and James. In each such case, when the efforts of a single man have exercised marked effect not only on all subsequent thinking but on the conduct of the mass of his contemporaries, we have, I think, to lead the result back to three coöperating factors: first, a strong and highly magnetic personality, so that what the man *says* or *does* becomes supported and supplemented by what he *is*; secondly, a distinctly new way of seeing life and interpreting it, whereby man's timidity in front of the world-riddle becomes to some additional degree abated; and thirdly, a particular need on the part of mankind which is administered to by the wider vision of the man in question. We have in this country recently had a most striking example, in the person of the late William James, of such coöperation between a man's character, his creative thought, and the acute demand of the

world at large. And Professor Bergson's case is, I feel sure, another one of the same kind, though perhaps even more remarkable—for did we not hear Professor James himself at the height of his fame apply the title of "master" to the younger and then less known Frenchman?

In his career, as outlined by external facts, there is nothing that will throw much light on his success, though some have traced it in part to his foreign ancestry and cosmopolitan heritage. He is of Jewish and Polish descent, but his family came to France from the other side of the Channel. He himself was born in Paris, but became a Frenchman only by naturalization, obtained after he had already entered the public schools. There must have been a great deal of inherent adaptability in his nature, for neither as student nor as teacher does he ever seem to have been in conflict with his surroundings—a rare fact to mention in the biography of a man of unmistakable genius. Yet he gave early evidence both of ability and originality. At 18 he took a prize in mathematics. And even in his doctor's thesis, finished in 1889, when he was thirty, the ideas which later brought him such renown may be found foreshadowed. When in 1900, after teaching for nearly twenty years in the high schools and normal colleges maintained by the state, he was made professor of modern philosophy in the ancient College of France, at Paris, the eyes of the learned world were already turned expectantly in his direction, and his election to the French Institute a year later came as a matter of course.

It was as a teacher he first began to lay the foundation of his influence on the present generation of Frenchmen, and it is from his success as a teacher that we get valuable light on his progress in general. That his success has been almost phenomenal may be judged by the gloomy forebodings uttered from time to time by leading representatives of older thought currents. Nothing less than a generation of students raised in total scorn of established scientific methods and ideals is what they have professed to fear. Whatever the outcome of it may prove, the fact remains that the great body of students in France is thoroughly inoculated with Bergsonism, while outside of that country the same set of ideas and ideals is conquering one university after another. Thus it is said that the students at Jena are more familiar with the works of the Parisian professor than with the "actualism" expounded by their own venerable preceptor, Professor Eucken.

Too often in the past the academic lecturer seems to have measured his accomplishments by the degree of abstruseness he managed to attain. And philosophy has equally often been nothing but an exciting game of hide and seek, with vanity for goad, and for goal alleged "truths" having little or no bearing on the "vulgar" issues of ordinary life. To this entire tendency of what has sometimes been called "mandarinism" the attitude of Professor Bergson has from the start been frankly hostile. He seeks above everything else to make himself clear. And he does so to a large extent by constant reference of his argument to the facts of actual existence. For mere sophistries he has no use whatever. And he takes his place conspicuously with that growing group of thinkers the world over who insist that philosophy, like everything else, must be for all mankind. According to Dr. Edwin E. Slosson, who recently made him a visit, he believes it possible "to make any philosophical idea clear and acceptable to the multitude."

What has just been said of his speaking applies with equal truth to his writing. He is a master of style, but one who always insists on making style a servant of the thought to be expressed. An English reviewer says that his written work has "the unity and flow, above all the imagination, of a poem." Nevertheless it is always "loaded"—every line betrays a vast knowledge that is never one-sided or pedantic. Thus the reviewer just quoted wonders at the fact that Professor Bergson shows equal command of "ancient speculation" and of modern biology. Though starting as a mathematician, he has mastered that most difficult art of translating abstract thought into terms of concrete life—as when, to give only one instance, he speaks of consciousness as "a momentary spark flying up from the friction of real actions against possible actions."

So far he has, as already mentioned, produced only four volumes—the first of these in 1889, and the latest one in 1907. One, "Le Rire" (The Laughter)—which was the third to be completed, though Professor Bergson had then been at work on it nearly twenty years—has not yet been translated into English. It deals with laughter as a social function, the author's leading idea being contained in this sentence: "The function of laughter is to punish and to repress certain actions that appear as defects to the social consciousness." This sharp accentuation of man's social side is very characteristic of Professor Bergson's whole attitude. It colors all his ideas and theories, and in the light of it one finds it hard to understand how some of his avowed but uninvited followers—like the anarchistically inclined Syndicalists—have been able to draw any inspiration from his teachings.

His other three volumes have just been brought out here under the following titles: "Time and Free Will" (Macmillan); "Matter and Memory" (Macmillan); "Creative Evolution" (Holt & Co.). The first two deal with certain fundamental problems of consciousness and are more closely specialized than the third. Through them Professor Bergson has endeavored to establish the reality of time—of which he says that "we do not think it, but live it, because life transcends intellect"—and the presence of an element of free choice and consequent unforeseeableness in all of man's actions. In the introduction to "Matter and Memory" occurs a passage that seems to summarize both the basis and the spirit of all that he has written. There are two principles, he says, which he has used as a clue throughout his researches:

"The first is that in psychological analysis we must never forget the utilitarian character of our mental functions, which are essentially turned toward action. The second is that the habits formed in action find their way up to the sphere of speculation, where they create fictitious problems, and that metaphysics must begin by disposing of this artificial obscurity."

From first to last, "Creative Evolution" is largely concerned with the clearing away of just such "artificial obscurities," by which reality has become overlaid in the course of man's millennial groping toward an understanding of it. Beyond all doubt it is Professor Bergson's greatest book, as it is his latest—and the one into which he has put most not only of his system but of himself. The personality of the man—with all its rare treasures of simplicity and sincerity, of insight and of sympathy, of common sense and of fancy—shines gloriously through every one of its pages. And it is in these pages he has given that something which

is at once new and fitted to meet the crying need of his time—the something, in other words, that sets him aside as a thinker of creative originality. In this work he has no longer been satisfied to deal with mere isolated phases of life, but has—in accordance with the philosopher's time-honored right—pushed on toward certain universal conclusions, shaping themselves at last into a logical totality of cosmic interpretation.

For the professional philosopher the book is rich in startling and, of course, debatable propositions, with which I shall not concern myself here. For I want to get at the very heart of the Frenchman's thought—the way in which he conceives and meets the riddle of life itself. First of all, then, he finds us using two different instruments in dealing with life, and he draws a sharp distinction between the origin, nature and function, on one side, of instinct, and, on the other, of intellect. The main thing to all philosophy so far has been thought: the main thing to Bergson is the act of living and our unformulated sense of it—that is intuition, or "instinct turned self-conscious."

"Instinct," he says, "is molded on the very form of life. If the consciousness that slumbers in it could awake, if it were wound up into knowledge instead of being wound off into action, if we could ask and it could answer, it would give up to us the most intimate secrets of life." And he cries to us: "Let us try to see, no longer with the eyes of the intellect alone, which grasps only the already made and which looks from the outside, but with the spirit; I mean with that faculty of seeing which is imminent in the faculty of acting and which springs up, somehow, by the twisting of the will on itself, when action is turned into knowledge, like heat, so to say, into light."

He does not scorn or spurn intellect. On the contrary, its coöperation is needed for the utterance of what is laid bare by intuition. Seen thus, "with the spirit," an essential dualism is found at the bottom of all existence—the dualism between matter and life, between unorganized and organized being. "The vision we have of the material world is that of a weight which falls," he says; "but all our analyses show us, in life, an effort to remount the incline that matter descends." Out of the effort made by life, "the reality which ascends," to overcome, or at least to suspend, the downward rush of matter, springs the tangible and visible universe.

Life proper reveals itself above all as a flux and a creation. "To exist is to change, to change is to mature, and to mature is to go on creating oneself endlessly," Professor Bergson tells us. Back of all this creative change he finds a common impetus that he calls the *élan vital*—the life-urge. We may imagine it as "a center from which worlds shoot out like rockets in a fire-works display." As here, so it is at work everywhere, shaping, developing, initiating. "It is probable that life goes on in other planets, in other solar systems also, under forms of which we have no idea." For life, in the eyes of Professor Bergson, is neither an accident nor a voluntary act of some supernatural being: it is a universal necessity.

Evolution he sees not as a straight line, but as a sheaflike divergence of forms. Some lines come quickly to an end. Others stretch onward with constant offshoot of new branches. Each onward step has to be bought by the surrender of something that until then had remained common prop-

erty, and which thereafter will become characteristic of a parallel form. Thus, for instance, the vegetable kingdom represents chiefly the general tendency of life to store up energy, while the animal kingdom specializes, so to speak, in the expenditure of energy.

To Professor Bergson each form appears as a narrowly restricted delegate of the life-urge, devised for a distinct purpose, and permitted to regard this purpose as the end of all life. "Each species, each individual even, retains only a certain impetus from the universal vital impulsion, and tends to use this energy in its own interest." Hence the egoism that marks each separate species as well as specimen. The principal social significance of Professor Bergson's ideas, however, lies in his statement that "everywhere the tendency to individualize is opposed and at the same time completed by an antagonistic and complementary tendency to associate." The evolution of being in this double direction is due to the very nature of life. Thus "society, as soon as formed, tends to melt the associated individuals into a new organism, so as to become itself an individual, able in its turn to be part and parcel of a new association." Beyond the human mind we divine the race-mind: behind the individual will, an all-inclusive world-will.

When we have reached this point, we have also reached the most comprehensive aspect of Professor Bergson's thought—an aspect which Professor Lovejoy has indicated by his reference, in the works of more than one prominent thinker of to-day, to "a genuinely radical evolutionism, which is at the same time of a highly romantic and religious spirit." It is nothing less than a new religious formulation that seems to shape itself before our rapt vision when Professor Bergson says that God, as defined in the light of the life-urge theory, "has nothing of the already made," but is "unceasing life, action, freedom." Another vista of equally startling nature is opened up by his assertion that "the whole of humanity, in space and in time, is one immense army galloping beside and before and behind each of us in an overwhelming charge, able to beat down every resistance and clear the most formidable obstacles, perhaps even death."

A divine principle, lying ahead and not behind us; an immortality not miraculously conferred but logically attained: these appear to be some of the possibilities contained in Professor Bergson's audacious conclusions. And it is undoubtedly through his courage in drawing out the consequences of his own thoughts that far—and through his ability to do so without for a moment losing his firm hold on the actuality with which we are all familiar—that he has won his dominant place not only in the heads of the few but in the hearts of the many.

Like President Eliot, like the late Professor James, like all those earnest and able men who are banded together in the world-embracing Monistic Union, Professor Bergson has felt that much of what has passed as religion hitherto has lost its background of actual experience, while at the same time the need of man to relate himself to the unknown as well as to the known has grown no less poignant than it was in the past. And to him more than to anybody else, as I see it, has it been given to restate the truths of being in such manner that they become, not a religion in themselves, but the firm basis on which a new and more reverential conception of the great insolvable mysteries of life may be reared.

THE NEW BOOKS

BRITISH AND AMERICAN POETRY

"A BOOK OF CAMBRIDGE VERSE,"¹ edited by E. E. Kellett, places before the reader representative selections from the great quantity of English verse that clusters around the fame and history of Cambridge. Conceding that no one has ever done for Cambridge anything like that which Matthew Arnold did for Oxford in his incomparable poem, "The Scholar Gypsy," Mr. Kellett finds that there is still much admirable poetry that expresses love and appreciation for the ancient shrine. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote, perhaps as early as 1340,—“And nameliche there was a great college Men clipen the Soler-halle at Cantebrige,” and late in the nineteenth century Paul England sang of the halls where “Milton mused” and “Darwin’s brow unbent.” Spenser, Milton, Wordsworth, Byron and a host of other poets have added their song inspired “by a grateful memory of Cambridge or by a love of her thousand beauties.” The literary taste of succeeding generations may be gathered from this anthology, likewise the exact relation of Cambridge University as an institution to the intellectual life of the people in their progress toward modernity. Mr. Kellett’s notes are mines of erudition concerning Cambridge poets and poetry. Mr. Kellett’s collection is illustrated with a frontispiece of Clare Bridge and portraits of the poets from Master Spenser down to Tennyson.

"A Study of Versification,"² by Professor Brander Matthews of Columbia University, has, according to the author’s statement, two purposes; first, to provide the student with an understanding of the mechanism of verse, and, second, to encourage teachers to give courses in metrical rhetoric—the last with the belief that exercise in verse-writing is the best possible way to attain the mastery of an easy, flexible prose style. Mr. Matthews is first of all a most excellent workman, and his book fulfills admirably the objects of its conception. His analysis of the elements of English verse and his plain, clear instruction as to the reduction of our vagrant poetical ideas to rhythmical measure, will be exceedingly helpful to those interested in the use of the English language. Every lover of poetry will perceive the exquisite guile of art with which Mr. Matthews has set for our study in mechanical detail, only the most lovely lyrics and blank verse produced by the masters of English poesy. "Versification is the carved vase which holds the precious wine of poetry," according to Mr. Matthews. He acquaints us with the design of the vase and the composition of its metal, meanwhile we taste the precious wine." The chapters of the volume are devoted to Rhythm, Meter, Rime, Tone-color, the Sonnet, Fixed Forms, Poetic License, etc. Mr. Matthews stands for Gautier’s creed, which is that of all true artists,—the creed that fights for perfection of form as the right of strong men’s art, the art of Michael Angelo and Milton. Only the great may have license; only those who are beyond fault may use a fault to advantage. One feels that Professor Matthews is at last poetically

a poet. Only a poetic mind could have with such sure craftsmanship fitted the detail of technique and the appreciation of pure song together for our instruction.

Mr. Kuno Meyer offers a translation of early Irish poetry,³ consisting of laments, love-songs, war-songs, religious poetry and Nature poetry. Many of the lyrics are taken from the Gaelic and Welsh tales wherein lyrics are put into the mouths of the principal heroes after the manner of the French story, "Aucassin and Nicolette." All of the older bardic poetry is in part a chronicle of historical events and is interwoven with the lives of the great families of Ireland. There is, as Mr. Meyer states, little attempt in his translations at either rhyme or rhythm; nevertheless, he has preserved in large measure the grandeur and sweep of the Gaelic originals. The selections of religious poetry give insight into the status and ceremonials of the early Christian church in Ireland. The invocation called "Deer’s Cry," attributed to St. Patrick, which, according to the legend, enabled the good saint to pass heathen warrior bands who opposed his missionary progress disguised to their eyes as a woodland deer, is one of the most marvelous invocations ever penned to the Deity. For pagan beauty and true Celtic feeling the selection "The Tryst After Death" is incomparable. The shade of the warrior chieftain, Fothad Canann, who has been slain in combat with Alill of Munster for the offense of carrying away Alill’s wife, keeps compact of tryst with his paramour after the fatal struggle in which both Fothad and Alill are slain. His words are not of their guilty love—death has purged away the desires of the flesh; there remains alone the pitiful, yearning desire of the man for immortality. He begs that a lofty and splendid tomb be erected for him that "some one will at all times remember the song of Fothad Canann." With this desire is mingled the Celtic fatalism that accepts both good and evil with composure—the composure that is begotten of a lofty conception of the meaning of life and death. Fothad says, "It was destined for me—thy unhappy journey: at Feic my grave had been marked out." This remarkable poem is of the early eighth or late seventh century and may be found in the original text in another collection of Irish poems by Mr. Meyer, entitled "Fianagect."

The poems of Edgar Allan Poe,⁴ with final revisions, exhaustive notes and variorum, have been edited by Mr. J. H. Whitty, to whom much of the material was bequeathed by Mr. Thomas, formerly of the editorial staff of the Richmond *Examiner*. A few weeks before Poe’s death, and while he was still in the office of the *Examiner*, he had all his major poems and several of the minor ones revised and set in type. Mr. Whitty, who is a lifelong student of Poe, offers his collection of these poems as Poe’s last judgment upon the merits of his own work. The new portrait of Poe, copied from a miniature in oil in the possession of his sister, Rosalie Poe, and taken at the old Lee Gallery at Richmond, is presented as a frontispiece. It does scant justice to the poet’s personal charms, if word-of-

¹ A Book of Cambridge Verse. Edited by E. E. Kellett. Cambridge University Press. 440 pp., ill. \$2.

² A Study of Versification. By Brander Matthews. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 275 pp. \$1.25.

³ Ancient Irish Poetry. Kuno Meyer. E. P. Dutton & Co. 114 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ The Complete Poems of Edgar Allan Poe. Edited by J. H. Whitty. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 304 pp. \$2.

mouth descriptions may be trusted, for there is scarcely a trace in the photo-engraving of the melancholy and classic beauty with which we have long been wont to invest the person of the poet. The memoir is carefully and sympathetically written and contains much interesting detail as to the intimate life of the Poe family and their immediate friends. Very few of the additional poems attributed to Poe shed any further luster upon his fame. In most of these he seems to have been forming his style, exercising his vaulting Pegasus, and wooing his gliding, alliterative rhythms. The real Poe is to be found in the old reading books, the good old school readers that are now no more. We may search their yellowed pages and find "The Raven" and "Israefel," the "Haunted Palace," "Ulalume," and beloved "Annabel Lee"; we may turn further and discover "To Annie," and the matchless music of "The Bells." The beauty of these selected poems of Poe's cannot be revealed by any process of dissection; their charm is fleeting, mysterious and undefinable. Beyond cavil or criticism their wild, fantastic imagery must stand as absolute beauty of poetic form—a joy forever. The resonance of "The Bells" has been equaled only by Sidney Lanier's "Song of the Chattahoochee," and by Paul Hamilton Hayne's "Fire Pictures." Beyond these few perfect lyrics, most of Poe's work in verse is artistic dross, interesting to students of the poet, but of small significance as art.

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM

"On Something,"¹ is the misleading title of a slender volume of essays by Hilaire Belloc. His somewhat capricious fancy is steadied by a thread of pure idealism that weaves delightfully through the text. The rambling and uncertain manner in which he approaches his subjects possesses the charm of an adventure on a journey where the ultimate destination is unknown. The essays entitled "Fairyland" and "Sacredness" are of especial merit. In the first there is a touch of Barrie's whimsicality, as when he says—"the only way to find Fairyland is to really *lose* your way." In "Sacredness," a sturdy Puritanism is overlaid with a Gallic lightness of style that is reminiscent of Stevenson at his best. The message of "Sacredness" is that the events of human experience viewed in their relation to a divine whole must be considered as sacred; and that only by utmost sincerity and truth in our inner lives can we preserve the sacredness that lifts life above the level of the worthless and the commonplace.

In a series of genial, personal essays, Arnold Bennett chats on "Mental Efficiency."² Contentment in life, he insists, is a way of thinking. In pursuance of this idea, he presents a number of stimulating suggestions as to how we ought to think that we may become less and less "slaves of environment."

BIOGRAPHY

It would be difficult, if possible, to find a more sympathetic, temperamentally appropriate biographer for Ruskin than Arthur Christopher Benson. By nature and the bent of his thought Mr. Benson is peculiarly well fitted to understand Ruskin and his message. In the character sketch recently issued, which Mr. Benson has sub-titled "A Study in Personality,"³ there have been col-

lected together seven lectures on the life and work of Ruskin, delivered at Magdalene College, Cambridge, last year. It is, Mr. Benson insists, not a finished portrait, only a sketch. He does not believe that Ruskin's fame and name have been eclipsed, although they have receded from the brightness they formerly shed upon the public. He desires, in this present volume, to alter "a state of affairs which has resulted in Ruskin's works having passed into a region of deferential acceptance, in which they are more respected than examined, and more revered than read." It will do us good to have our memories stimulated with regard to what Mr. Benson calls "one of the most suggestive thinkers, the most beautiful writers, and the most vivid personalities of the last generation."

Brought up among that strange group of artistic souls known in England as the Pre-Raphaelites, in which his grandfather, Madox Brown, was a conspicuous figure, the English essayist, Ford Madox Hueffer, knew these men intimately in their daily lives. His "Memories and Impressions,"⁴ recently issued, is the story of artistic and literary London of a generation ago. The Rossettis, William Morris, Ruskin, Hunt, Franz Liszt, Whistler, and others appear vividly in these pages. The treatment is frank, though friendly. The volume is illustrated by portraits.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE

The current volume of the "New International Year Book"⁵ is the fourth of the series which began with the "Year Book" of 1907. It is designed as an encyclopedia of the year 1910, and its scope is more extensive than that of other annual publications. Its articles are not mere revisions, but are new each year. The present volume contains an interesting description of the work of the census office, an account of the November elections, and exceptionally full discussions of such subjects as the referendum and initiative, direct election of Senators, primary elections, nomination reform, and municipal government (with a list of American cities now governed by commission). Many topics of international interest are treated in this volume, and the articles in the departments of science, art, and industry are brought well up to date.

"The Statesman's Year Book"⁶ in its edition for the current year, maintains its usual high standard. It contains much valuable, recent historical data. We note especially considerable improvement in the sections devoted to Spain, Turkey and China. Editorial offices will be especially grateful for the fact that the main results of the censuses of 1910-11 in Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Spain, Switzerland, Norway, Bulgaria and the United States have been included. There are some excellent maps, including one of the new projected railway routes to India as planned last year; the outline of the new Liberian boundary as determined two years ago; and an excellently graphic chart map of the Panama Canal zone.

Of the fifteen volumes that are to comprise the "Catholic Encyclopedia,"⁷ eleven have now been issued, and it is possible to form a fairly accurate impression of the range and method of this great work. It would be a mistake to infer from the title

¹ On Something. By Hilaire Belloc. E. P. Dutton & Co. 272 pp. \$1.25.

² Mental Efficiency. By Arnold Bennett. George H. Doran & Co. 119 pp. 75 cents.

³ John Ruskin: A Study in Personality. By Arthur Christopher Benson. Putnam. 323 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Memories and Impressions. By Ford Madox Hueffer. Harper's. 335 pp., ill. \$1.60.

⁵ The New International Year Book. Edited by Frank M. Colby and Allen L. Churchill. Dodd, Mead & Co. 837 pp., ill. \$5.

⁶ The Statesman's Year Book for 1911. Edited by J. Scott Keltie. Macmillan. 1412 pp. \$3.

⁷ The Catholic Encyclopedia, Vol. XI. Edited by Charles G. Herbermann. Robert Appleton Co. 799 pp., ill. \$6.

of the encyclopedia that its contents are of interest only to Catholic readers. Many of the articles contain valuable information, not merely on topics concerning the Catholic Church especially, but on a great variety of secular subjects. So far as the purely Catholic topics are concerned, it is certainly a matter of great importance to non-Catholic readers to have careful and scholarly statements of fact, signed by recognized authorities in the Church, presented in this convenient form.

In the "Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge,"¹ a work published under Protestant auspices, which has now reached its tenth volume, there are elaborate articles on the Roman Catholic Church, several of which are contributed by eminent Catholic scholars. The "Schaff-Herzog" will be completed in twelve volumes. While differing from the "Catholic Encyclopedia" in its range of treatment, it resembles the latter work in many of its minor features.

The tenth and concluding volume of the "Documentary History of American Industrial Society"² has recently come from the press. The earlier volumes in this important series have been noticed, from time to time, in this REVIEW, as they have appeared. The work was prepared under the auspices of the American Bureau of Industrial Research, with the coöperation of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. The chief editor of the series was Prof. John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin. The tenth volume contains documents relating to the organization of the Knights of Labor and the various farmers' organizations of the country during the years 1860-80. By far the greater portion of the volume is taken up with a complete index of the entire set. This index occupies more than 200 pages, and will be an invaluable aid in tracing the history of American labor organizations as set forth in the various documents comprised in this unique series. There is also a finding list of sources which may be utilized to great advantage by scholars and librarians.

RELIGION

"The Great Teachers of Judaism and Christianity,"³ by Charles Foster Kent, is a summary and an interpretation of the message of the great religious teachers of the past who have recorded their teachings in the Christian Bible. The subject matter has been delivered in the form of lectures on the "Aims and Methods of Israel's Teachers," at Berkeley, California, and at the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut, Syria. The teaching methods of the Israelitic prophets, the history of their rites, ceremonies, laws and institutions is presented without the savor of sectarianism. The final chapter, which deals with the larger conception of religious education and the rediscovery of the Bible in the light of the higher criticism, is valuable for its clear conceptions of the meaning of Biblical text, and also for its illuminating definition of the place of religion in modern life and its adjustment to the individual and social needs of a community.

Two recent works on modern missions have come from the press of Eaton & Mains. "Theory and Practice of Foreign Missions,"⁴ by Dr. James

M. Buckley, editor of the *Christian Advocate*, consists of a series of lectures delivered several years ago, at Syracuse University. Dr. Buckley then set forth a discussion of most of the important topics afterwards brought up and discussed before the World's Missionary Conference, at Edinburgh. The other volume: "Growth of the Missionary Concept,"⁵ by John F. Goucher, is also made up of lectures delivered before the Syracuse University. It is mainly devoted to a discussion of missionary work in China and India.

TRAVEL AND ADVENTURE

A tale of travel, adventure, and observation in the Far East, "Jungle Trails and Jungle People,"⁶ by Caspar Whitney, gives some personal experiences of the author on a recent tour through India, Sumatra, Malay and Siam. Mr. Whitney acknowledges that the underlying motive which prompted the journeys recorded in these pages was not game, not information, not self-improvement; it was "just the lust of adventure." He desires, he tells us, to tell folks, in his own halting style, something of the human and brute life which he has seen in the big world. The volume is copiously illustrated.

Mr. William E. Curtis' experiences as a high-class journalist traveling about the world have a charm of their own. He generally succeeds in throwing light on obscure questions, peoples, and situations. In his latest volume, "Turkestan: The Heart of Asia,"⁷ he has written an absorbingly interesting account of Russian expansion in Central Asia, including some picturesque information to the general public about the ancient Mogul conquerors Genghis Khan and Tamerlane. There are many pictures to the volume, most of them photographs by John T. McCutcheon.

A very handsomely bound volume, just published by Hodder & Stoughton, of London, gives an account of the "Voyage of the 'Why Not?' in the Antarctic."⁸ It is a story of the second South Polar Expedition in 1908-1910, under Dr. Jean Charcot. The English version is by Philip Walsh. There are numerous illustrations from photographs.

In his own fascinating way, Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton comes back to tell us another story of nature and the boy. It is entitled "Rolf in the Woods."⁹ It is the adventures of a boy scout with an Indian and a little dog in the woods. In this story Mr. Seton tells us he has endeavored to realize some of the influences that surrounded the youth of America a hundred years ago, and made of them, first, citizens, and later, military leaders. He has given a good deal of attention to scouting and woodcraft in the time of peace "in the hope that I may thus help other boys to follow the hard-climbing trail that leads to the higher uplands." This volume is finely illustrated with page pictures and marginal drawings by the author.

A NEW EDITION OF "TREASURE ISLAND"

"The student should be allowed to give himself up to the enjoyment of rapidly reading this story as

¹ The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge. Vol. X. Edited by Samuel M. Jackson. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 499 pp. \$5.

² Documentary History of American Industrial Society. Vol. X. Edited by John R. Commons. Arthur H. Clark Co. 370 pp., ill. \$5.

³ The Great Teachers of Judaism and Christianity. By Charles F. Kent. Eaton & Mains. 166 pp. 75 cents.

⁴ Theory and Practice of Foreign Missions. By Dr. James M. Buckley. Eaton & Mains. 151 pp. 75 cents.

⁵ Growth of the Missionary Concept. By John F. Goucher. Eaton & Mains. 202 pp. 75 cents.

⁶ Jungle Trails and Jungle People. By Caspar Whitney. Harper's. 310 pp., ill. \$3.

⁷ Turkestan: The Heart of Asia. By William E. Curtis. George H. Doran & Co. 344 pp., ill. \$2.

⁸ The Voyage of the "Why Not?" in the Antarctic: the Journal of the Second South Polar Expedition, 1908-1910. By Dr. Jean Charcot. English version by Philip Walsh. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 315 pp., ill. \$5.

⁹ Rolf in the Woods. By Ernest Thompson Seton. Doubleday, Page & Co. 431 pp., ill. \$1.50.

a story." It is refreshing to find this sensible advice given at the beginning of the preface of Mr. Frank W. C. Hersey's School Edition of Stevenson's "Treasure Island."¹ Besides Stevenson's capital yarn, this edition includes an introduction with much interesting material for students, a short life of Stevenson, a history of the Buccaneers, quotations from Captain Charles Johnson's "History of the Pyrates," explanations of how to sail a schooner, and Stevenson's account of how he wrote "Treasure Island." A glossary of nautical terms used in the text are grouped at the end. The plan of the edition and notes is stated by Mr. Hersey to have arisen from the suggestions of several hundred students, as to what they should like to have in a school Stevenson. Mr. Hersey's comprehension of Stevenson the story-teller is sympathetic; he senses the real Stevenson when he writes—"the story of Treasure Island sprang full-armed from a map—a map of an island set in a silver sea." The book is illustrated with maps, cuts of schooners, and a portrait of the redoubtable Captain Blackbeard of the Buccaneers. A complete history of the lives and careers of the famous pirates, Edward England, Bartholomew Roberts, Blackbeard, and Captain Kidd, is also included in the introduction.

A MANUAL OF THE FLYING MACHINE

Mr. Claude Grahame-White, England's premier aviator, and winner of the Gordon-Bennett International Cup in 1910, has published a comprehensive work on "The Aeroplane: Past, Present, and Future."² The volume was prepared in collaboration with Mr. Harry Harper. The book consists mainly of chapters of various phases of the subject of aeroplane flight contributed by experts. Beginning, naturally, with the "Pioneers of Flight," the gradual development of man's aerial achievements is traced in a chapter which contains a valuable compilation of records in speed, distance, over-water, and passenger-carrying flights, and so forth. M. Bleriot, the famous French Channel-crosser, writes on the sporting and commercial possibilities of the aeroplane, and Mr. Henry Farman, winner of the Michelin prize of 1909 and maker of the Farman machine, takes up "The Constructional Future of Aeroplanes." In the chapter on "The Human Factor in Flying" are given the views of Cecil Grace, the English aviator who lost his life last December in the North Sea. The subjects of aerial law, the fascination of flying, and the aeroplane in warfare are also treated by authorities. Two chapters that will particularly interest those who have followed the disasters of aviation are those which describe and analyze aeroplane casualties and discuss the prevention of accidents. A notable feature of the book is a list of the world's airmen—a sort of "Who's Who" of the air. According to this chapter, there were only four flying men as recently as 1908, while in the list here given are over 700, of all nationalities. A brief record of his achievements follows the name of each flyer. The machines flown are also enumerated, showing the relative number of each of the standard makes in use. As between the two general classifications, biplanes outnumber the monoplanes. Among the

biplanes, the Farman is easily the most popular, while in the monoplane class the Bleriot is far in the lead. The book ends with a chapter on "The Future of Flying," contributed by M. Paulhan and other well-known experts. This symposium seeks to provide answers to those obvious questions as to the prospects for the development of flying which the world is constantly asking. The illustrations to the volume are many and excellent.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

"Samuel Butler was in his own department the greatest English writer of the latter half of the nineteenth century," writes Mr. George Bernard Shaw. "Unconscious Memory,"³ by Mr. Butler, comes to us in a new edition with an added introduction by Marcus Hartog, Professor of Zoölogy in University College, Cork. This introduction summarizes Butler's views upon biology and defines his unsailable position in the world of science. To those who are still interested in the Darwin controversy—in "old, unhappy far-off things and battles long ago,"—this volume will be of interest, and also to those who feel that even the learned theories of such men as Hering have not fully solved the mystery of memory with its curious submergence of consciousness. The more or less careful insight into the commonest phenomena of memory must lead away into a field of the most abstract of concrete knowledge. After all consideration due to superimposed, vibratory impulses which seem to be the starting point of surface memory, the impulses must to a greater or less extent be acted upon by an original impulse whose source is hidden from us in the depths of matter; therefore we are at a standstill so far as exact knowledge is concerned. Mr. Streatfield states, in the preface of this volume, that it was Mr. Butler's desire—one expressed shortly before his death—to have "Unconscious Memory" issued in its present form.

A new history of England, as Mr. C. R. L. Fletcher sapiently remarks in the preface to his own work, rather calls for an apology. Prudently he has entitled his two-volumed study "An Introductory History of England."⁴ It is not designed, he tells us, to pour information into any one, still less to help any one to pass any examination; therefore, it is not fortified with tables, summaries, or lists of dates. It is, however, intended to interest boys of the high-school age, and the author hopes that he has succeeded in "smearing the unpalatable dry bread with a thin layer of jam." There are a number of useful maps and a good index.

Two useful little "How to Grow" volumes have come to us from Doubleday, Page & Company. "Chrysanthemums and How to Grow Them,"⁵ by I. L. Powell, is a manual of instruction, complete and well illustrated, for growing this queen of autumn flowers. "Vines and How to Grow Them,"⁶ by William C. McCollom, treats of all sorts of vines and discusses their care in simple language. This volume is also illustrated.

¹ *Treasure Island*. By Robert L. Stevenson. Edited by Frank W. C. Hersey. Ginn & Co. 249 pp. 45 cents.

² *The Aeroplane: Past, Present, and Future*. By Claude Grahame-White and Harry Harper. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 319 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ *Unconscious Memory*. By Samuel Butler. E. P. Dutton & Co. 186 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ *An Introductory History of England*. By C. R. L. Fletcher. E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols., 934 pp. Maps. \$3.50.

⁵ *Chrysanthemums and How to Grow Them*. By I. L. Powell. Doubleday, Page & Co. 201 pp., ill. \$1.10.

⁶ *Vines and How to Grow Them*. By William C. McCollom. Doubleday, Page & Co. 313 pp., ill. \$1.10.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

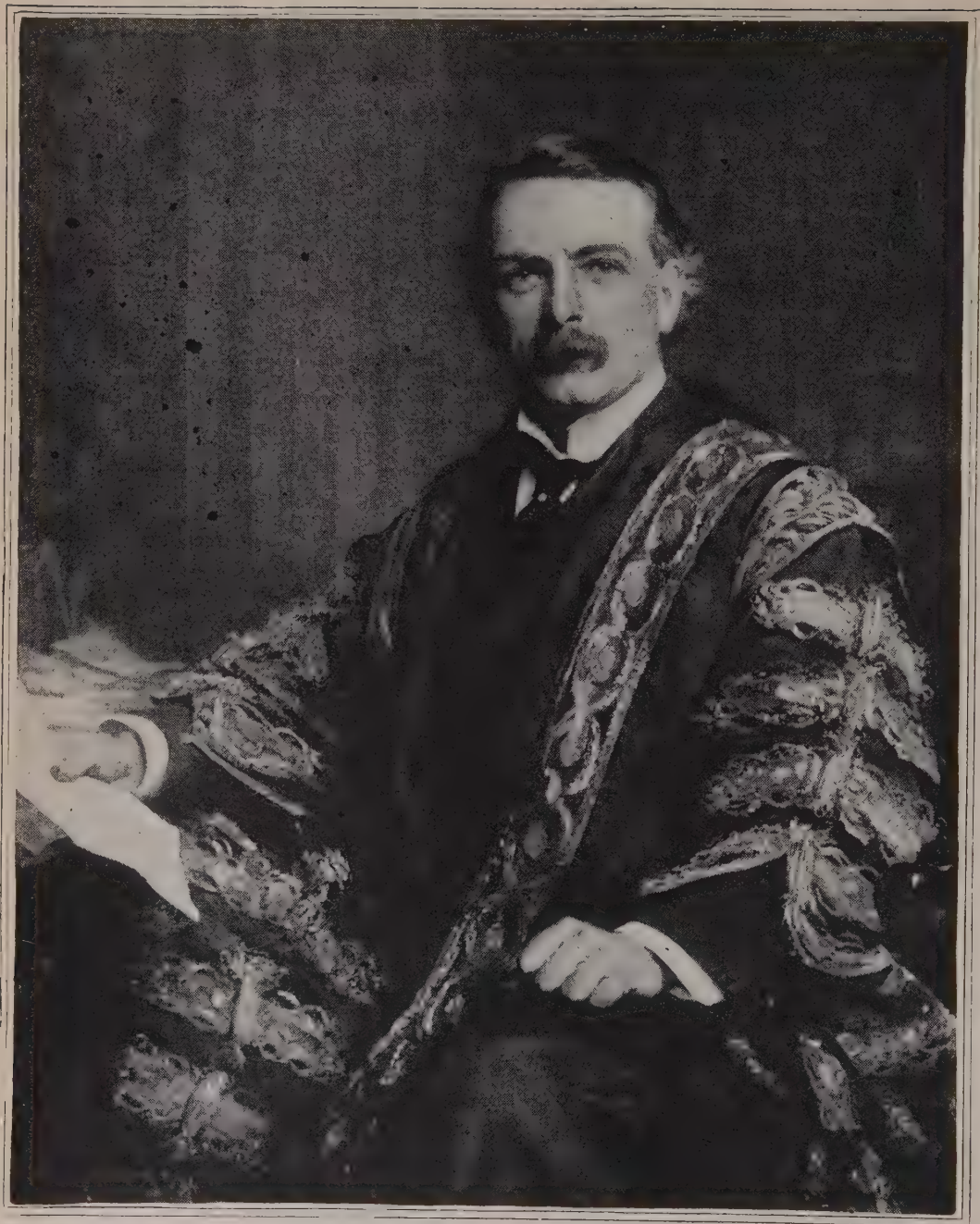
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

CONTENTS FOR SEPTEMBER, 1911

David Lloyd-George.....	Frontispiece	Edwin Austin Abbey, Illustrator.....	300
The Progress of the World—		By ERNEST KNAUFFT	
		<i>With portrait and other illustrations</i>	
A Session of Much Achievement.....	259	Frenchman and German in Africa.....	305
Some Recent Tariff History.....	259	By EDGAR ALLEN FORBES	
The Compromise Wool Bill.....	260	<i>With map and other illustrations</i>	
The Grounds for a Veto.....	261	Mapping the World on a Standard Scale.....	319
The Message of Veto as Sent.....	261	By HERBERT T. WADE	
Facts <i>versus</i> Assumptions.....	262	<i>With portraits, maps, and other illustrations</i>	
What December May Bring Forth.....	263	Experiment Station in Race Improvement.....	327
The Veto and the Majorities.....	264	By FRANCES MAULE BJÖRKMAN	
Delaying Statehood.....	264	<i>With illustrations</i>	
The Veto for Timid Judges.....	265	Getting the Most Out of Wood Products.....	334
The Long- and Short-Haul Decision.....	266	By MARY BURCHARD ORVIS	
The Plight of the Railroad.....	266	<i>With illustrations</i>	
A Bad Report of the Crops.....	267	Trying to Solve the Problems of Race.....	339
The Greatest Crop of Cotton.....	268	By SAINT NIHAL SINGH	
Vast Increases in Farm Values.....	268	<i>With portraits</i>	
The Harvests of the World.....	268	Leading Articles of the Month—	
Investigating the Trusts.....	268	Workmen's Compensation Laws.....	344
Ex-President Roosevelt a Witness.....	269	American Poets—An Estimate for Germans.....	345
Is the Sherman Law Adequate?.....	269	Prison Experiments in Humanity.....	347
Investigating the Government.....	270	Italian Emigrants: A Proposed Reform.....	348
Paying Customs Tribute.....	270	Lelewel, Poland's Greatest Historian.....	350
Success of the Postal Savings-Banks.....	270	The 2500th Anniversary of Buddha.....	351
A New Charter for New York.....	271	A Great English Editor.....	352
Care of the City Schools.....	272	The Origin of Women's Rights.....	353
Facts About City School Systems.....	272	The Feminist Movement in France.....	354
Liquor in Maine and Texas.....	272	The Doukhobors and Their Future.....	356
The Arbitration Treaties.....	273	Some German Pioneers in the United States.....	358
The Senate's Objections.....	273	"The Mystery of Saint Sebastian".....	359
New Diplomatic Transfers.....	274	Who Discovered Anesthesia?.....	361
Canadian Parliament Dissolved.....	275	Anglicanism in Architecture.....	362
Laurier's Prospects.....	276	Lord Strathcona.....	364
The Opposition Campaign.....	276	Canada's Proposed Retaliatory Copyright Bill.....	366
Mexico, Panama, and Chile.....	277	How Trusts Are Controlled in Canada.....	367
Another Revolution in Haiti.....	278	A New Diamond Field in German Southwest	
Britain's Grave Problems.....	278	Africa.....	368
The Lords Surrender.....	279	Italy's Social Cancer—The Camorra.....	369
Disorder in the Commons.....	279	The Influence of Christian Missions in Japan.....	371
Usefulness of the Lords Not Impaired.....	281	The Next Generation of German Housewives.....	372
Home Rule Next.....	281	Journalism and the Future of Our Language.....	373
Industrial War in England.....	282	Berlin and Paris, Two Modern French Opinions.....	374
The Government Intervenes.....	283	China's Attempt to Take a Census.....	376
The Bargain Over Morocco.....	284	<i>With portraits and other illustrations</i>	
Britain's Firm Stand.....	285	Notes on Business and Investments.....	377
Has Germany Backed Down?.....	286	A Reference Library for the English-	
Aviation Notes.....	287	Speaking World.....	381
Two Eminent Public Servants.....	287	The New Books.....	382
<i>With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations</i>			
Record of Current Events.....	288		
<i>With map</i>			
Cartoons of the Month.....	292		
Underwood, Democracy's New Chieftain.....	296		
By ROBERT WICKLIFFE WOOLLEY			
<i>With portrait</i>			

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DAVID LLOYD-GEORGE, THE MAN OF THE HOUR IN GREAT BRITAIN

The Chancellor of the British Exchequer, David Lloyd-George, author of the revolutionary budget of 1909 which resulted in the reform of the House of Lords, last month was the chief instrument in bringing about one of the greatest victories achieved by the Liberal Government, the pacific settlement of the great transportation strike. To Mr. Lloyd-George, as originator of the conciliation scheme of 1907, is due most of the credit for averting a serious industrial war throughout the United Kingdom. He was the untiring mediator between the companies and the workmen. By his statements to Parliament and his interviews with the railway managers and the men, he secured a triumph after all others seemed to have given up hope. This portrait is reproduced from the painting by Sir Luke Fildes.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*A Session
of Much
Achievement*

It is one thing for a Republican President to call a Democratic Congress in extra session; and it is quite a different thing to persuade that Congress to accept a program prepared for it by the head of the opposition party. So Congress did not meekly adjourn at the successive dates fixed from the outside, and statesmen were deprived of their much-needed vacations. There was no public demand for an extra session. On the contrary, there was well-nigh unanimous opposition to the idea. The only friends of an extra session were the newspapers, considered in their private capacity as users of print paper. In their public capacity—as expressing general opinion—they could make no showing for an extra session. But Congress, having been brought to Washington at great inconvenience some eight months ahead of the regular date, for the purpose of changing the tariff as respects paper and wood pulp, could not well face the country if it had forgotten all about the promises made in the elections of last November. It has remembered, and its record of achievement is remarkable.

*Some Recent
Tariff
History*

Mr. Taft had been elected President in 1908 on the pledge to give the country a proper revision of the tariff. He had called the Republican Congress into extra session in the spring of 1909 for this express purpose. If he had then made one-tenth of the effort to secure a good tariff bill that he has now been making to pass a comparatively small tariff measure in the form of an arrangement with Canada, we should probably have had an acceptable measure in place of the Payne-Aldrich law as it stands. Even an explicit and definite message to Congress at that time, setting forth the nature and extent of a reasonable tariff revision, would have been a rallying

point for the consumers and general public of the country, as against special protected interests and the claims of localities. Now, in 1911, every proposal to revise a tariff schedule has been met in advance with the contemptuous announcement that all bills would be vetoed. Yet, as matters stand, the Democrats are in overwhelming majority in Congress, while the public opinion back of them demanding tariff revision not only includes all the Democrats of the country, but also includes a majority of the Republicans. In 1908 President Taft and a Republican Congress were elected on the same day under pledges made in the party platform and in countless campaign speeches to give the country a prompt and real revision and reduction of the most extravagantly high tariff system that any country in the world had ever devised.

*What Should
Have Been*

The President was in a position to see that his own party,—being in full control of both houses of Congress,—did its duty at that time. No one had ever before so strongly asserted the theory that the President of the United States is the leader and master of his own party. On this assumption, there was the plain and unmistakable duty in the spring of 1909 to relieve the country, and to save the party from wreck and ruin, by leading the movement for true tariff revision. Then was the time for plain talk, and, if necessary, for veto messages. Coöperation with those Republicans in Congress who were working for reasonable reduction of duties while retaining the protectionist character of the tariff, would have resulted in a revision that would presumably have been acceptable to the country for a number of years. Following such a revision, it would have been the duty and policy of the Republican party to set up a tariff board or a tariff commission which



DID HE STAND PAT?
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)

should prepare the way for a gradual, deliberate, future revision of a more thoroughgoing kind than we have ever undertaken in the United States. All this was as clear as daylight to those who saw the situation in some calmness and perspective.

But, unluckily for the Republican party and its leadership, everything was seen as through dense fogs. The Payne-Aldrich bill was log-rolled through Congress, and the broad sentiment of the country and the Republican party found no expression except in the debating of a group of able men who were thereupon called "insurgents" and were pilloried for having been true to their convictions and to common sense. The leadership of the party was not content with accepting the Payne-Aldrich tariff, but the measure was extravagantly praised before the country for its merits, and the Republican Senators who had opposed it were subjected to persecution. And what was the verdict of public opinion? The Democrats swept the country in the Congressional elections of November, 1910. The only element of the Republican party that fared at all well in those elections was the element which had demanded proper tariff revision, and had in consequence been put under the ban of the Administration's disfavor. If ever a party was given a clear mandate by the

people at the polls, the Democrats were instructed to revise the tariff when they carried the country last fall. Even Mr. Taft had pronounced the wool and cotton schedules as "indefensible." The action of the Democratic House in revising these schedules has had clearer public favor, and less popular opposition, than any tariff reductions that have been attempted in this country in more than half a century.

*The
Compromise
Wool Bill*

All such enactments are of necessity based upon compromise. There is no way to make them final or minutely perfect. Reductions have to be based upon existing rates and general conditions. There was no pretense, therefore, that the Wool bill, as sent up to the President, was a perfect measure. What could be said for it was that in large part it got rid of the glaring imperfections of the Payne-Aldrich bill. The Underwood committee of the House had passed a bill on June 20,—as already described in these pages,—the vote at that time being 220 in favor of the bill and 100 against it. Twenty-three Republicans voted for it, and 32 Republicans were absent. Many Republicans voted against it as a matter of party tactics, though recognizing the fact that the country demanded the measure with something like unanimity. It will be remembered that Republican leaders in the Senate confidently predicted that all tariff reform measures would die in the House, and that they never could be reported out of the Senate Finance Committee. Our readers will further remember how the Progressive Republican Senators, acting with the Democrats, compelled the Finance Committee to report bills and to permit votes to be taken. The Democratic Senators did not agree to support the House bill in its exact terms, but on July 27, under the leadership of Senator La Follette, who had himself introduced a Wool bill as a substitute, a compromise Wool bill was carried through the Senate by a vote of 48 to 32, no Democrat voting against the bill. Eleven Republicans (Messrs. Bourne, Bristow, Clapp, Crawford, Cummins, Kenyon, La Follette, McCumber, Nelson, Poindexter, and Works) voted in the affirmative.

*Nature
of the
Agreement*

The existing average rate of duty on wools is about 44 per cent. The Underwood bill as originally passed in the House reduced the duty to 20 per cent. The compromise measure, as carried through the Senate with the help of Mr. La Follette and the Progressives, fixed

the duty at 35 per cent. It was freely predicted by those who wanted nothing done, that there could be no agreement reached in conference committee between the two houses. But Mr. Underwood and Senator La Follette, after several days of very honorable and creditable negotiation, settled upon 29 per cent. as the compromise figure they would recommend to their respective houses. This was an admirable piece of work performed in the true spirit of government by concession and compromise as to details, where neither side sacrificed any principle. Taking the compromise report back to the House, Mr. Underwood wasted very little time in talk. He said that the bill as agreed upon would save the American people 34 per cent. of the tax they now pay on manufactures of wool. Mr. Underwood declared: "We can well afford to pass this bill and send it to the President, in order that we may get some relief, even if it does not entirely express our views on this question." Thus, on August 14, the House agreed to the conference report by a vote of 206 to 90. On the following day the Senate adopted the report by a vote of 38 to 28, the Democrats standing solidly for it, and the Progressive Republicans, Bristow, Clapp, Crawford, Cummins, La Follette, Poindexter, and Works, taking the same position.

*A Moderate,
Practical
Bill*

There are vast numbers of people who believe that raw wool ought to be put on the free list at once, and that the manufactures of wool such as ordinary clothing (which in the bill as passed are reduced from an average rate of 90 to an average of 48) ought to be admitted from abroad at a rate much lower than the one agreed upon by Congress. But, on the other hand, there are vast numbers of people who think that the sheep-raising and wool-growing interests of the country have a right to the continuance, for some years at least, of a moderate protective tariff; and that the labor employed in woolen manufactures is further entitled to some protection. The Payne-Aldrich bill not merely recognized the claims of those who wished protection, but kept the rates excessively high. The new bill sent to the President for his signature in the middle of August represented a large reduction, but was not a destructive or unstatesmanlike measure. It could not well have prostrated a great industry. It did not recklessly abandon an established policy. It represented practical statesmanship, and seemed entitled to the favor that the public instinctively accorded to it.

*The Grounds
for a
Veto*

It would have seemed a broader and more statesmanlike thing for Mr. Taft to permit such a measure to become a law, than to block it by the interposition of a veto. Yet it had everywhere been announced, without contradiction from the White House, that the President would veto any tariff bills whatsoever that Congress should send to him. Such a position on the part of a President is so unusual that it ought to find its justification in real things rather than in mere arguments or forms of words. Nobody supposes that Congress, in passing this wool bill, was accomplishing a permanent or final result. It was simply offering the country a much better wool schedule than the one that exists. It was, furthermore, enacting its measure by overwhelming majorities which had received fresh mandate from the people, and which had been growing rather than losing in public favor. For it is an unmistakable fact that the Democratic party is well pleased with the way in which its present representatives in Congress have been doing business; and it is an equally unmistakable fact, furthermore, that millions of Republicans and independents have a much better opinion at this time of the Democratic Congress, and much less dread of its possible unwisdom, than they had at the time when it convened in April. This is a party situation that is not usual in our political history.

*The Message
of Veto as
Sent*

President Taft's message vetoing the bill was sent to Congress on August 17. It had been carefully prepared well in advance, the action of Congress having been expected. It is an exceedingly well-phrased message, lawyer-like and argumentative. From beginning to end it takes the tone of the wise and dispassionate teacher, correcting the whole school, under circumstances where the teacher's mere statement is conclusive on its face. The teacher's discourse shows the scholars their inexperience and their silly precipitancy. They are put in fools' caps and exhibited for their own best good. It is as though it were a problem in algebra, the teacher knowing how to find the right answer, —next December, but not in summer-vacation time. Congress is reminded that if it will just have the goodness to wait until December, a tariff board of Mr. Taft's appointment will give Congress all the information it could possibly need to enable it to act intelligently about the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, and several other schedules.

As a matter of admirable phrasing, the message is a model. Its tone is perfect, as is its dialectical method. But whether or not there is good ground for its assumptions is left wholly unsettled by the message. What reason is there to suppose that in exactly three months from now several modest gentlemen, whose names the public does not know, working under the direction of a Republican administration, can flood the whole complex tariff situation with a brilliant illumination, so that everybody may see clearly that one thing rather than another thing is what ought to be done?

*Facts
Versus
Assumptions*

The truth is, that Congress in both houses contains a great many men who have some knowledge and understanding of the tariff. And at the present moment the country is dealing with tariff policies as well as with detailed facts. The tariff board,—in its somewhat tedious, official way,—can and doubtless will give us useful information about several of the tariff schedules. But the fundamental facts upon which general tariff opinions have been formed by Republicans and Democrats will not this year be affected, unless in the smallest degree, by the statistics of the tariff board. We know the difference between a mountain and a valley, even when we do not know within a few feet the height of the mountain or the depth of the depression. Mr. Taft's message proceeds upon the assumption that his tariff board can find out the exact measure of difference between the cost of things at home and abroad, and can indicate further what would be a proper differential to protect the higher wages of American workmen and to allow a profit on American capital engaged in manufacturing. Undoubtedly a tariff board can help to confirm the views already held by those who are well informed and impartial. But is there anybody who believes that as respects the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, the iron and steel schedule, the chemical schedules, and several others, the tariff board's reports will affect the action of the great Democratic majority in the present House, or will make a difference to the extent of a single vote in the alignments and coalitions of the present Senate chamber?

*Forgetting
Last
November*

We have no disposition to discredit the present tariff board. Having taken an energetic part in the work that led to the creation of this board, the REVIEW should be the very last to

undervalue its work. Yet it is plain that the board is making its investigations without express sanction of law, Congress having definitely assigned it other duties while refusing to sanction those it is performing. Regardless of its technically false position, the board is undoubtedly doing conscientious work, although it is to be said again that tariff inquiries ought to be made at the behest of Congress rather than at the behest of the President. The large fact that Mr. Taft seems to ignore is that the country last fall expressed itself as favoring a rapid general lowering of the tariff rates at the hands of a Democratic Congress, rather than a slow and so-called "scientific" treatment of the subject by a tariff board under Republican direction. The Administration asks the country to look upon Democratic tariff revision as purely a political play. The Democrats, in turn, profess to regard the veto as play for political position on the part of the chief candidate for the Republican nomination next year. Of course there is politics on both sides. It simply happens that the country has gone Democratic, and the Democrats are playing the political game demanded by the American people, while the President would seem to be obstructive. Yet this does not completely sum up the situation.

*Delay Can
Do Little
Harm*

A more just view might be expressed somewhat as follows: The country did not expect any tariff legislation until next winter. An extra session was neither expected nor desired, and the Democrats had supposed that they would have all the time until the regular session next December to get their tariff bills ready. The same men who have been passing these tariff bills in August will come back to the regular session in December. The tariff board can well make a report—of the only kind that it can make at all—within a comparatively short time. It will be under obligation at the very opening of the session to have its reports ready on several schedules. Unless the tariff board should find out a lot of startling things that nobody else knows about (and it is not intimated that the tariff board has any surprises in store), it is difficult to believe that the Democrats under the leadership of Speaker Clark and Chairman Underwood will do anything by way of material change from that which they have been doing in the special session. Nor is there any reason to suppose that the members of the Senate three months from now will be disposed to act in a different way. No Demo-



READY FOR WHATEVER IS COMING HIS WAY

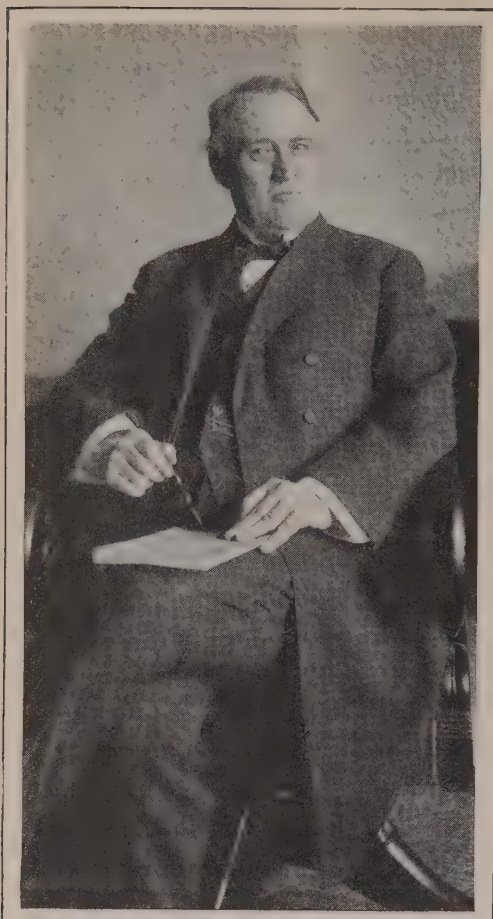
•From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus)

cratic Senators have said that they felt puzzled and embarrassed for lack of the aid of Professor Emery's board. Neither have the Progressive Republican Senators intimated that they were acting tentatively, and that their opinions and votes were subject to change when the tariff board should disclose its accumulating secrets. On the other hand, some of the regular Republicans have excused themselves for voting against the tariff bills by saying that for their part they should like to see the reports of the tariff board. Some of these regular Republicans, when in the first week of December they read those reports, may perchance be converted to the Underwood-LaFollette program. (Some of Mr. Underwood's qualities as a leader are considered elsewhere in this REVIEW.)

What December May
Bring Forth

Thus there is a pretty good chance that exact information, tabulated by the tariff board, may increase the number of votes in favor of the reform bills, while there is no reason to think that the work of the tariff board can lead any man back to the "stand-pat" position who has now voted for the reduction measures. Meanwhile public opinion will have some further opportunities to express itself, and Congress will have a little more time in which to consider and mature its program. The bills that have been passed through both houses by large

majorities will give all interests affected by them due notice to be in readiness for change. The conference bill would have put the wool measure into effect on October 1. If Congress so desires, it can repass the Wool bill early in December with a view to its taking effect soon after the beginning of the year. If Mr. Taft should then veto it, his veto would have to rest upon the essential facts, rather than upon the idea that Congress should first see some statistics. Although the consumers who have waited many years for a reduction of the woolen rates may see no reason for delay, nevertheless no great harm can come. The Democrats will have the better chance to decide exactly what policy they ought to pursue. The country will express itself again in November of next year upon the tariff history of the preceding four years. The Democrats, in order to be sure of public approval, must have a moderate but clean-cut program, and must put their program through the House with rapidity and harmony in the winter session. They must also try as far as possible to hold the support of their Democratic Senators. It will be for the Democrats themselves to decide whether, in the long session next year, they will make compromises in order to secure Republican Progressive support. From the political standpoint, there are good reasons on both sides of that question.



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SENATOR OVERMAN, OF NORTH CAROLINA

(Whose revision of the chemical schedule was added to the Cotton bill by the Senate's vote—27 to 22, thus constituting the first Democratic victory in the Senate for many years)

*The Veto,
and the
Majorities*

The President's message vetoing the Wool bill, as we have said, was read in the House on August 17. Mr. Underwood at once announced that he would not ask to have the veto message referred to the Ways and Means Committee, but would call it up for action on the following morning, with a view to passing the bill by the necessary two-thirds vote over the President's veto. It was a question of the attitude of the thirty or more Republicans who had originally voted with the Democrats in favor of the bill. It was commonly supposed that the bill would pass the House over the veto of the President, but that it would lack a little of the necessary two-thirds in the Senate. It was sure, of course, to have a decisive majority in both houses, but the Constitution required that in order to pass

a bill over the President's head there must be an affirmative two-thirds vote in each House. The vote in the House on August 18 on the Wool bill was 227 to 129, five members voting "present"; on the Free List it was 226 to 127, two members voting "present." Thus the bills each failed to receive a two-thirds vote of the members present.

*The Tactics
of
Evacuation*

After the President's veto message had been received, some of the stand-pat Republicans in the Senate, acting on behalf of the Administration, hit upon a new way to deal with the plans of Senator La Follette and other Progressives for extending the session. By refusing to take part in the proceedings, they allowed the Democrats to obtain unobstructed control of the Senate. Thus the Democrats did not need to defer to the views of their temporary allies, the Progressives. Senator La Follette had practically compelled the Democrats to take his Wool bill; but aid from Messrs. Penrose and the regulars enabled the Democrats to ignore the La Follette Cotton bill, and pass unamended the Underwood Cotton bill as it had come from the House. Senator Cummins' bill revising the steel and iron schedule was adopted in the technical form of an amendment to the Cotton bill. The chemical schedule was reduced 25 per cent., cotton mill machinery was subjected to a great reduction of duties, and so on. And thus, rather unexpectedly, on August 18 it became certain that a considerable amount of tariff legislation would promptly follow the Wool bill, and be sent to Mr. Taft with the certainty that it would be met with a veto message. On the following day the Senate and House leaders reached an agreement for adjourning the session on Tuesday, August 22.

*Delaying
Statehood*

Behind the political scenes, the delays over the admission of Arizona and New Mexico are regarded as relating to their participation in the Presidential election next year. The Democrats are much more eager than the Republicans to get Arizona and New Mexico safely established as members of the family of States. It will be remembered that they had already been admitted, except for the final steps. They were to form State constitutions, and these were to be submitted for approval at Washington. The President was then to proclaim their compliance with all conditions. The constitution of New Mexico readily passed muster with the wise and the conservative at Washington, although it was

open to some very serious criticism. The constitution of Arizona, however, was received with protestations of horror. The people of Arizona had taken a fancy to certain new and experimental methods in popular government. They had decided to put into their constitution the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. Washington sneered at the initiative, sniffed at the referendum, and had spasms over the recall. It was bad enough for the people of Arizona to recall other elected officers whose official conduct they did not like; but to recall their elected judges would be subversive of justice and ruinous in ways that it requires a great many words to set forth. To be sure, several other States have adopted this plan under which the people may vote upon the question whether or not they are satisfied to keep in office a judge who has got there already by being voted upon. Intimate knowledge of the way in which a great many judges have been nominated and elected in different States of the Union would hardly seem to justify the alarm that has been raised against an orderly method by which the people could raise a question as to the conduct of men on the bench.

*The Veto
for
Timid Judges*

Nobody dreams of molesting good judges in States that already provide the possibility of the recall. Any judge who goes on the bench is fairly deemed to be a man of intelligence, who understands the nature of judicial duties. The unjust judge is a miserable rogue. In vetoing the Statehood bill, President Taft on August 15 declared that "the character of judges would deteriorate to that of trimmers and time servers, and independent judicial action would be a thing of the past,"—if the recall were allowed. This would seem to be purely a theoretical opinion, based upon nothing that experience has shown to be true. If there is any value in the arguments against the recall of judges, let it be remembered that conservative legal opinion has always used precisely those arguments against the election of judges by popular vote and for fixed terms. The very idea of electing a judge is shocking to the conservative mind. Lawyers of Mr. Taft's way of thinking have always and everywhere believed in the appointment of judges for life. But this requires more confidence in the officials who would have to exercise the appointing power than is generally felt by the plain people. The only safety for a judge is to do his duty intelligently and in a judicial spirit. It is not good judges who will ever



PRESIDENT TAFT: "Go back and think it over, 'my boy'"
From the *Tribune* (New York)

be in the least afraid that some of their fellow-citizens might try at some time to have them recalled. There is no place in the United States where it would be possible to break down a really high-class judge by getting his neighbors and fellow-citizens to vote him out of office because they did not like his decision in a particular case.

*Arizona Will
Decide in
the End*

We have not the least fault to find with some of our ablest and best Senators, who have made strong arguments against the recall of judges. Their arguments ought really to have been made against the admission of New Mexico and Arizona. For, as soon as you admit New Mexico and Arizona, you confer upon them the undisputed right to recall their judges or to do anything else they please. And it is an exceedingly curious thing that statesmen at Washington should have been fairly tumbling over one another to demand the admission of Arizona and New Mexico, while they were prepared to dispute the discretion of Arizona and New Mexico in details. Senator Beveridge, as chairman of the Committee on Territories, did not believe that Arizona and New Mexico were ripe for admission. His position was a sincere one. He sustained it for years, and finally relinquished it, and allowed the admission bill to go through, in deference to the wishes and demands of the administration. But political exigencies have greatly changed since the

elections of last November; and there is much less urgency from the Republican standpoint about giving more electoral votes to the Southwest. Congress itself did not like the item of the recall of judges, and therefore hit upon a sensible amendment. Arizona was to be admitted immediately upon agreeing to submit the recall proposition separately to a vote of the people. This ought to be acceptable enough to anybody, for the manifest reason that wherever in their future as a State, the people of Arizona wish to recall their judges, they will be at liberty to confer that privilege upon themselves. There are many of us who care much less for political machinery than for the way in which it is used. This magazine has not been ardent in demanding the initiative, the referendum, or the recall, while being very willing to see all these things tried, in order that experience may test their value. If the people of Arizona are indeed fit for Statehood, and if they should be allowed to send two Senators to Washington to help govern the entire country, they must surely be regarded as competent to settle for themselves the various details of their domestic government.

The Long-and-Short-Haul Decision

The decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission in the so-called long-and-short-haul freight rate case, the final orders on which were announced on August 10, is both important and puzzling in railroad economy and in the industrial development of different geographical sections of the United States. The merits of this controversy between shippers and carriers have been discussed for twenty years. Recently the controversy became acute through the protests of such "intermountain" western cities as Reno and Spokane against the freight rates charged on shipments to them from eastern points. The railroads have charged a higher rate from an eastern point to these cities than from the same eastern point to the Pacific Coast. For instance, the rate on a carload of freight from the East to Reno would be \$400, while if carried from the same point on through to San Francisco the rate would be only \$275. The principle of this lower charge at coast points was the necessity of meeting at San Francisco water competition, and the lower rates possible for water carriage. Thus, the theoretical principle on which the railroad based its rate of \$275 for a carload of freight to San Francisco was that if it charged more than \$275, the freight would go by water, and the theory of the \$400 rate for the

shorter haul to Reno was that the rate for hauling the freight by train to Reno, after it had reached San Francisco on a water rate basis, should be added to that water rate. The Pacific Coast cities have enjoyed this advantage over intermountain cities, and have opposed any change in the rate-making system. The complaints to the Interstate Commerce Commission coming from the intermountain cities have been based on the Mann-Elkins act, passed last year, which prohibits carriers from charging more for the transportation of passengers or property "for a shorter than for a longer distance over the same line," except as allowed to do so by the Commerce Commission.

The Commission's Presumption

The present decision turns, not on the reasonableness of freight rates *per se*, but on the discriminatory features of the present practice of charging more for a haul to Reno, for instance, than for a haul to the Pacific Coast. Yet the commission has been forced to accept the basic principle of the long- and short-haul theory of the railroads, and simply changes the ratio of increase of the short-haul charge over the long-haul, changing it in such a way that it is difficult to see how the railroads can evade a considerable loss of revenue. Briefly, the commission provides for five longitudinal zones lying east of St. Paul and the Missouri River. On the theory that the farther west traffic originates, the less it has to meet water competition from coast to coast, the commission allows a rate on freight originating in the zone on the Atlantic seaboard to be 25 per cent. higher to an intermountain point than for the longer haul to the Pacific, and the allowable increase of short-haul rate grows less with each zone, moving west, until when freight originates west of the Missouri, no higher rate can be charged for the short haul than for the long haul to the Pacific.

The Plight of the Railroads

Thus the water competition rates to the Pacific Coast are still the basis of the charge that may be made on freight from New Haven to Spokane. But, with the differential much reduced, the railroad is faced not only with a present loss of revenue, due to the lower rates to the intermountain points, but is faced also with the probability of an increased rate competition following the opening of the Panama Canal. It is a puzzling situation for the carriers, because they are apparently disbarred from a suc-



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THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION AS NOW CONSTITUTED

(Standing, left to right: F. A. Clark, B. H. Meyer, J. S. Harlan, C. C. McChord. Sitting, left to right: C. A. Prouty, Judson C. Clements [chairman], F. K. Lane)

cessful appeal, on the score of the decision being confiscatory, by the fact that the commission has set no definite rates, but simply the percentages that can be added to the water competition rates. A large, important, and involved consideration is the effect that the new order will have on the business development of the geographical areas that are concerned. Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, who acted as counsel for the shippers of the Atlantic seaboard in the arguments before the commission, considers that the result is serious for the Pacific Coast cities, and that it will seriously impair their jobbing business in the intermountain region, while helping Chicago and Middle-Western cities. Mr. Brandeis also believes the decision will, if it stands, result in a large development of the coastwise merchant marine between the principal cities of the Atlantic seaboard and the Pacific Coast.

*A Bad
Report of
the Crops*

The Government's crop report of August 8 showed the ravages of the fearful drought and heat which assailed the country in July. The

results of these untoward weather conditions are shown in a loss in condition sustained in July, of no less than 10 per cent. in the corn crop and of 11 per cent. in wheat. This report is the final one in the critical time of the growing agricultural products, and it is possible now to take stock of the year's harvests with certainty. It is plain that there will be no "bumper" crops except cotton, that the hay crop will probably be the smallest in fifteen years, that the yield of oats is very bad, having been smaller only three times in the last ten years, and that there is a real crop failure in potatoes, although the late planted fields, which have received the benefit of recent rains, may qualify the failure to some extent. As for corn, the yield per acre will be only 23 bushels, as compared with the average yield of 27 bushels, but the acreage this year is so large that it will remain true that the total crop will be large, exceeded only five times in the history of the country. The wheat yield per acre will this year fall from the ten years' average of 14.7 bushels to 12.8 bushels, but the wheat acreage, too, is unusually large, and the total crop will fall only some twelve mil-

lion bushels below the ten years' average. The intensely hot and dry weather which has thus cut down so suddenly the crop promise of the previous month extended over a vast area of the United States, and was most serious in the great farm section between New York and Pennsylvania, on the East, and the Rocky Mountains on the West. The Pacific Northwest has suffered less than other sections, and continues to have excellent crop prospects, in spite of hot weather in July. The Southern States, too, have been helped by plentiful rains, with the exception of North Carolina and Virginia.

*The Greatest
Crop of
Cotton*

The bright spot in the agricultural year is the splendid cotton crop, which now promises to be more than 14,700,000 bales. The largest production before came in 1904, in which year the yield was less than this year by more than 1,000,000 bales, which gives some idea of the phenomenal character of this year's crop. Should cotton sell this year at the same average price it brought in 1910, the value of the 1911 crop would be slightly more than \$1,000,000,000; if the price recedes to the average figure of the past five years, 11.5 cents per pound, the cotton raisers will still receive the enormous sum of \$800,000,000.

*Vast Increase
in Farm
Values*

The Census Bureau has recently made a report on the farm values of to-day in the United States, as compared with the values of ten years ago, that makes a most remarkable showing. In 1900 the agricultural land of the country was valued, in round figures, at \$13,000,000,000. In the ten following years it increased in value no less than 118 per cent. to \$28,000,000,000. Including the buildings and agricultural equipment, the total value now is nearly \$36,000,000,000, as compared with \$17,000,000,000 in 1900. In the number of farms, there has been an increase from 5,737,372 to 6,340,120, or 11 per cent. The area tilled increased from 835,092,000 acres to 873,703,000, or 5 per cent.,—an interesting figure as showing the tendency toward smaller average holdings. The average value per acre of our farms was, in 1900, \$15.60, and in 1910, \$32.50 per acre. The movement toward the use of improved farm machinery is reflected in the increase of the value of agricultural implements from \$750,000,000 in 1900 to \$1,260,000,000 ten years later. Thus, while the total acreage tilled increased only 5 per cent., the value of implements used in tilling increased 68 per cent.

*The
Harvests of
the World*

Canada is the lucky country this year in her farming business. Western Canada has a bountiful and excellent wheat crop, and the condition of the crop for the whole Dominion is put at 90, as against only 77 last year. With a largely increased acreage as well, Canada's will be the prize wheat crop of 1911. The conditions of heat and drought which in July affected the grain fields of the United States so unfavorably, seem to have attacked farmers in nearly all parts of the world. As a result, the European wheat crop will be smaller than last year, in spite of fine yields in Italy and Spain. Even in Western Siberia and Eastern Russia there was the same story of insufficient moisture, and considerably reduced wheat yields. In Argentina and the other grain-raising areas of South America, the promise for the cereals is fair, but their harvests are as yet several months in the future.

*Investigating
the
Trusts*

While the Standard Oil Company and the American Tobacco Company have been struggling with the task of disintegrating their great structures and reconstituting them to agree with the Supreme Court's "rule of reason," the other two of the most famous quartet of American "Trusts," the American Sugar Refining Company and the United States Steel Corporation have been undergoing investigation at the hands of special committees of the lower house of Congress. The Hardwick Committee, investigating the Sugar Refining Company, examined such notable witnesses as Mr. John E. Parsons, the veteran lawyer and the actual builder of the Sugar Trust; Mr. John Arbuckle, the powerful and bitter competitor of the American Refining Company, and Mr. Horace Havemeyer, son of the late H. O. Havemeyer, whose dominance in the industry was the chief subject at most of the hearings. But the most picturesque and unusual of all the investigations came when the Stanley Committee of the House brought before it not only Chairman Gary of the Steel Corporation, and Mr. George W. Perkins, head of the Corporation's finance committee, but ex-President Roosevelt himself. Mr. Roosevelt was called to testify as to the part he played, during his Presidency, in allowing the absorption of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company by the Steel Corporation, at the height of the panic of 1907. It will be remembered that the managers of the Steel Corporation consulted the President as to the attitude the Government would take if the Corporation exchanged its



Photograph by Jensen & Cunningham, New York

EX-PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT GIVING HIS TESTIMONY ON THE "TENNESSEE COAL AND IRON" EPISODE, BEFORE THE CONGRESSIONAL STEEL COMMISSION

marketable bonds for the non-marketable bonds of the Tennessee Company, thereby saving certain large Wall Street institutions from almost certain trouble, and preventing a worse financial catastrophe.

Ex-President Roosevelt a Witness Colonel Roosevelt's testimony before the Stanley Committee was characteristically vigorous. He assumed final and full responsibility for the virtual grant of immunity to the Steel Corporation in the merger, reminding the committee that he was confronted by a tense and dangerous condition, rather than an economic theory. As to just how the motives of the Steel managers were mixed,—whether they were more anxious to allay the panic, or, on the other hand, more anxious to absorb their business rival,—Colonel Roosevelt declared himself without concern. There was a panic, it was in danger of getting worse; here was a chance to keep it within bounds, and he took the chance. Every fair-minded man will, in

judging the incident, act on the ex-President's suggestion that it is necessary to take oneself back to the days of the autumn of 1907, and the atmosphere of fight and distrust that surrounded every effort toward betterment of the panic conditions, in order to gauge accurately the wisdom or non-wisdom of such a step as the President took. It is notorious that as soon as a financial institution has weathered a storm, it seems that it was never in danger,—just as anxious depositors, when they find they can get the money they are standing in line to draw out of a bank, immediately leave the line and cannot be persuaded to withdraw their funds.

*Is the
Sherman Law
Adequate?*

In the testimony of Mr. George W. Perkins before the Stanley Committee and the discussion aroused by his answers, there was a striking recognition of the fact that modern business conditions are entirely different from the business conditions of a quarter-century ago,

when the Sherman Act was passed. Mr. Perkins made a strong plea for new legislation which would allow the coöperative good of the new conditions of combination to live, and yet restrain the dangers of the new order. Many democratic members of Congress are evidently impressed with the necessity of a fairer and more efficient principle of policing "Big Business" and there has been proposed a commission to consult with such men as Mr. Perkins, Mr. Morgan, Mr. Rockefeller and other great captains of industry to find a better way to control the modern growth of business than the Sherman law affords. In the meantime the Department of Justice has instituted new proceedings for dissolution against the so-called "Soft Coal Trust," alleging an illegal combination between several railroads and mining interests in the bituminous fields. The Lake Shore and Michigan Southern and the Chesapeake and Ohio are the principal railroads involved.

*Investigating
the
Government*

Congress has not rested with the trust investigations, but has diligently pressed its inquiries into the methods and procedure of some of the executive departments of the Government itself. The investigation of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Agricultural Department has brought to light certain facts which go far to confirm the opinion very generally held that systematic efforts had been made by interested manufacturers to hamper Dr. Wiley's administration of the Pure Food law. It was clearly shown that even the charge of technical violation of law brought against Dr. Wiley, as chief of the Bureau of Chemistry was wholly without foundation. As to the administration of the public lands in Alaska, President Taft was able to make a satisfactory defense of his action. The specific charges relating to the elimination of the shore-front lands at Controller Bay from the forest reserve were fully met. There is room for differences of opinion among those who are agreed on the one proposition that Alaska should be opened to development as rapidly as possible. Some believe that the Government should retain possession of a terminal like that at Controller Bay; others maintain that private enterprise should be encouraged to develop such terminals. There is, however, no serious disposition to question President Taft's good faith in eliminating the Controller Bay lands and no reason to doubt that he acted for what he believed to be the public interest.

*Paying
Customs
Tribute*

There is probably no sort of law-breaking which is undertaken with such lightness of heart and such confident attempts at self-justification as smuggling, whether in the form of undervaluation of goods by merchants or dishonest declaration on the part of incoming passengers. The task of the Collector of the Port of New York, when that official honestly tries to do his duty by the Government, is no easy one. Ever since his assumption of the duties of this office, in March, 1909, Mr. William Loeb, Jr., has been accused of all sorts of bureaucratic and despotic conduct by both passengers and merchants who object to the Payne-Aldrich tariff, and express their disapproval by false declarations. Mr. Loeb's recent report to the Secretary of the Treasury contains some figures which show how well he has performed his task. The collection of revenue from passengers' baggage, despite the newspaper discussion, yields only a small proportion of that received from the importation of merchandise, and yet the amount so collected is a very important factor. During the year ended March 11, last, the duties collected on passengers' baggage aggregated close to \$2,000,000. This exceeded all previous collections from this source. It is 293 per cent. in excess of the amount collected during the year just preceeding Mr. Loeb's taking office, while the increase in the number of passengers for the same period was less than 40 per cent. The report referred to shows also how improvements have been made in the personnel of the service, how the merit system has been introduced and extended, rivalry suppressed, improvements made in the weighing service and in the general business methods of the Custom House. The Collector believes that only jail sentences will stop the rich smugglers. The increase in the amount collected from passenger baggage during the past customs year is obviously chiefly due to the new business methods, the diligence of the officers on the docks, and also to the fact that the traveling public has become convinced of the necessity of declaring all articles brought in from abroad or incurring the risk of having such articles discovered, and of placing the owners in danger of criminal prosecution.

*Success of
the Postal
Savings Banks*

"Uncle Sam, the people's banker," is doing a thriving business. Hundreds of new branches of his postal savings depositories have recently been opened, and the deposits are rapidly flowing in. Tested first in the



Photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THE OPENING OF NEW YORK CITY'S FIRST POSTAL SAVINGS BANK

smaller communities, the machinery of the system has now been better perfected, and the post-offices of a number of the larger cities have been opened for deposits. New York, Chicago, and Boston began the operation of their depositories on August 1 with great success, hundreds of people standing in line for hours to avail themselves of the privilege of putting their savings in the custody of the Government. The post-offices of ten other large cities will soon be designated as depositories, and practically all of the 1800 second-class post-offices have now been so designated. Then the third and fourth-class offices will be brought into service. Altogether 50,000 of the 60,000 post-offices of all classes in the country will eventually be designated as savings depositories. The banks are open from 9 A.M. to 5 P.M. on every business day, and any individual over ten years of age, without regard to race, creed, or previous condition of servitude, may open an account. Two per cent. interest is paid. A certificate is given for each deposit, and the money paid out on presentation of this certificate. The guaranty of the United States Government stands behind the deposits. Deposits of less than one dollar are certified by special stamps.

*A New
Charter for
New York*

The proposed New York City charter, which is to be acted upon at the adjourned session of the State Legislature this month, contains so many radical provisions that the New York Chamber of Commerce has urged the Legislature to refer the bill for future consideration and hearings to a joint committee to be composed of members of the Legislature and an equal number of unofficial citizens of New York City to be chosen by the Mayor. Although the meeting at which this action was taken was described by its chairman as a meeting of inquest and not of protest, it is significant that not a single voice friendly to the proposed charter was raised. All the recent discussion of this remarkable document that has appeared in the press tends to show that many of the new provisions might become, in the hands of a Tammany administration such as the city has known more than once in the past, the mere instruments of plunder and oppression. The Comptroller's present power over contracts is seriously impaired to the great advantage of unscrupulous heads of departments. Many of the former powers of the Aldermen, which, in the palmy days of the Tweed régime, were diligently employed in the interest of graft, are to be re-

stored. The Mayor's veto power in the matter of public-service franchises might be utilized directly against the decisions of the Board of Estimate and the Public Service Commission.

*Care of
the City
Schools*

It seems significant that the educational chapter of the proposed charter has attracted even more attention than the financial sections. This chapter provides that in place of the present unpaid Board of Education, consisting of forty-six members, there shall be substituted a paid board of seven members, the president to receive \$10,000 a year and the other members \$9,000 each. This proposition for a paid board has been generally condemned by educationists throughout the country, many of whom admit that the board should be smaller than it is at the present, but contend that paid service would introduce the danger of politics in the worst sense of the word. What seems, however, to be a more fundamental objection is that the new charter proposes to confer on the board executive powers now exercised by the Superintendent of Schools. Such an arrangement would result in a confused mingling of administrative and legislative functions. It is proposed that the public schools should be brought directly under the control of the Mayor and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, like any city department, and, of course, these officers, purely political by nature, would have the power to discontinue summarily any branch of school work simply by refusing to appropriate money to carry it on. President Lowell, of Harvard, President Butler, of Columbia, and other prominent educators have protested against this chapter of the proposed charter.

*Facts About
City School
Systems*

The discussion called out by the educational features of the New York charter is one of the straws that show a widespread interest in school matters throughout the country. It is said by those who have been giving special attention to the subject that the 20,000,000 children who will register during this month of September in public, parochial, and private schools will be studied, understood, and helped as never before. Professor Paul H. Hanus, who is in charge of the comprehensive inquiry into New York City's school system under the direction of the Board of Estimate, gave four days to the study of the public schools of Montclair, New Jersey, and the results of that study have been published by

the city's school authorities. The National Bureau of Education has just published the results of a month's study of Baltimore schools by the former United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Elmer E. Brown, and two associates. Special reports will soon be published on investigations of the business management of Cleveland and St. Louis schools, while a number of important documents dealing with all-year schools, intermediate schools, school mortality, a shorter course, and emphasis upon the "three Rs," by Superintendent Elson, of Cleveland, and his colleague, Dr. Frank C. Bachman, are now available. State Commissioner Cheney, of Connecticut, has stimulated important tests of the educational machinery of that State. At its recent San Francisco meeting the National Education Association appropriated \$6,000 for several school inquiries. In the meantime scores of superintendents in small and large towns are making serious and continued studies of their own schools.

*Liquor in
Maine and
Texas*

The two States in which prohibition has been made the most absorbing issue during the summer are Maine and Texas. The vote by which the people of Texas decided, on July 22, against the prohibition amendment to the State constitution was so close that the "wets" have no assurance that a subsequent attempt of the same kind may not prove successful. One reason for the narrow majority in the Lone-Star State may be found in the fact that 162 out of 245 organized counties of the State already have prohibition under the existing local-option laws. It is said that two-thirds of the present population of Texas is now living in "dry" counties. The vote of the counties in which large cities are situated was barely sufficient to turn the scale against prohibition. In Maine, on the other hand, the fight is not to get prohibition into the State constitution, but to keep it there. Prohibition in Maine antedated by many years the constitutional amendment adopted under the leadership of the Republican party in 1884, but prior to that year the liquor traffic had been interdicted by statutory enactment alone. Should the result of the election to be held this month be favorable to the repeal of the amendment, the anti-liquor laws of the State would still remain on the statutory book, and the Democratic party, which is now in power in the State, would have to take the responsibility of repealing them before Maine would become legally "wet."

*The
Arbitration
Treaties*

On August 3 the two general arbitration treaties between the United States and Great Britain, and the United States and France were signed; at Washington, by Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce for Great Britain, and at Paris by Ambassador Jusserand for France. Secretary Knox signed the French treaty at the same time, and copies were immediately exchanged between Washington and Paris. We have already set forth in these pages the general terms of these treaties, which in substance agree to submit to a neutral court all differences that might ever arise between the contracting governments, even though the dignity, honor and vital interests of either or both might be involved. The following day President Taft sent the agreements to the Senate. On August 5 the terms of the agreements were made public in Washington, London and Paris. The next stage required to enact them into law was their ratification by the United States Senate and the British and French parliaments. On the day the terms of the pacts with Britain and France were made public, President Taft signalized the visit of Admiral Togo to this country by practically inviting Japan to enter into a general arbitration treaty with the United States on similar lines to those already signed. Several days later, Germany, also, through Ambassador von Bernstorff at Washington, made known to Secretary Knox its acceptance of the general principles as laid down in the agreements arranged between Great Britain and France.

*The
Senate's
Objections*

Immediately after the publication of the terms of the treaties, a number of Senators permitted it to become known that they would oppose these agreements. They are of the opinion that the High Commission of Inquiry provided for under the conventions would not only infringe upon the Senate's constitutional treaty-making power, but might, in the future, commit this country to submit for settlement to such a court of inquiry some point of dispute which would involve a line of policy regarded by the American people as essential to their national welfare. The general point of view of the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate was set forth in a report made public on August 15. The committee referred to the treaties as "breeders of bitterness and war," and recommended the elimination of the paragraph conferring specific powers on the joint High Committee of Inquiry. The paragraph in question reads:

*Would the
Treaties
Breed War?*

It is further agreed, however, that in cases in which the parties disagree as to whether or not a difference is subject to arbitration under Article I of this treaty, that question shall be submitted to the joint high commission of inquiry; and if all or all but one of the members of the commission agree and report that such difference is within the scope of Article I it shall be referred to arbitration in accordance with the provisions of this treaty.

The committee's report declared that the treaty-making power of the Senate as conferred by the Constitution has "on the whole proved of the highest usefulness in the prevention of hastily and ill-considered agreements with other powers and in the preservation of the interests of all and every part of the American people." So long as that duty rests upon the Senate, "we must continue to perform it with courage and firmness, and without evasion or abdication."

There are certain questions at the present stage of human development which, if thus forced forward for arbitration, would be rejected by the country affected, without regard to whether, in so doing, they broke the general arbitration treaty or not. In the opinion of the committee it should not be possible, under the terms of any treaty, for such a deplorable situation to arise. Nothing ought to be promised that we are not absolutely certain that we can carry out to the letter. If the third clause of Article III remains in the treaty it is quite possible that the unhappy situation just described might arise, and the treaty would then become, not what we fondly hope it will be, a noble instrument of peace, but an ill-omened breeder of bitterness and war. For that reason, as well as on constitutional grounds and in the best interests of peace and arbitration itself, the committee recommends that this clause be stricken from the treaty.

The subjects referred to in the above sentences were afterwards more specifically stated by individual senators to be arbitration with China and Japan, or other Asiatic nations in matters of labor and immigration, and the general national policy of the Monroe Doctrine. Answering these objections, Secretary Knox, in an interview given out on August 6, contended that there would be no abdication of power by the Senate, since

if it is agreed that the difference is one for arbitration, or, failing to agree, it is decided to be arbitrable by the commission, then the arbitration is to be conducted under a special agreement to be submitted by the President to the Senate for its advice and approval, in the same manner as is provided in the existing arbitration treaties of 1908.

*President
Taft's De-
fense*

President Taft and Secretary Knox, in several public speeches, defended the arbitration principle and the treaties already concluded with Britain and France. In a speech at Ocean



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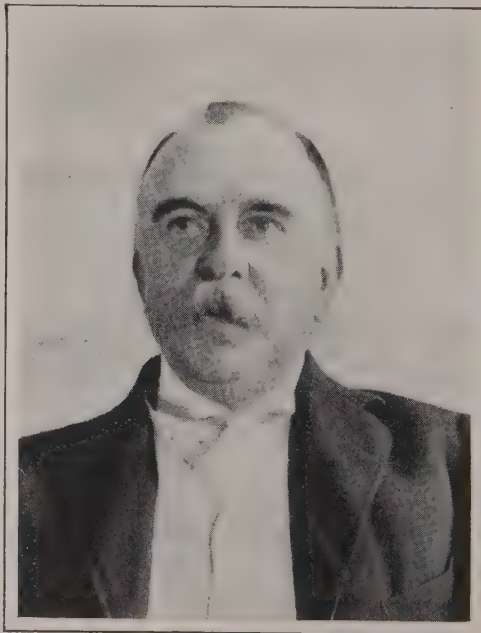
HON. CHARLES PAGE BRYAN, OUR NEW AMBASSADOR TO JAPAN

Grove, New Jersey, on August 15, the President spoke in glowing terms of the progress made in the arbitration idea during recent years. He extolled the merits of the treaties in question, and expressed regret that the Senate should regard its prerogatives as "any more sacred than those of the Executive or any other branch of the Government." Neither the President nor Secretary Knox believes that under these treaties the Monroe Doctrine or any other national policy could be arbitrated out of existence. Their position is that national policies cannot be held to be justiciable. A number of leading Senators, however, fear that while the doctrine itself would never openly come to the point of arbitration, particular cases involving the policy might do so, and, in effect, the policy might thus be condemned and abrogated by the arbitral award. It was not expected last month that any definite action would be taken on the treaties until the regular session of Congress in December. The great good accomplished by the conclusion of such agreements, even if unratified in their original form, is the moral effect. In the words of the great Paris daily, the *Temps*, "there is every reason to believe that Great Britain, France,

and the United States will never need to have recourse to the procedure which the treaties outline. Yet it is not surprising, indeed it is salutary, that these great peoples believed it their duty to outline such procedure."

*New
Diplomatic
Transfers*

The largest shift in important diplomatic positions ever made by the State Department, carrying out the idea of rewarding meritorious work of the diplomats with better places within the service, was made last month. On August 8 the State Department announced that John G. A. Leishman, of Pennsylvania, Ambassador at Rome, had been transferred to Berlin to succeed Dr. David Jayne Hill, resigned. Other transfers were: Thomas J. O'Brien, of Missouri, Ambassador at Japan, to be Ambassador at Rome, succeeding Mr. Leishman; Charles Page Bryan, of Illinois, Minister to Belgium, to be Ambassador to Japan, succeeding Mr. O'Brien; Lars Anderson, of Ohio, to be Minister to Belgium; John Ridgley Carter, of Maryland, Minister to the Balkan States, to be Minister to the Argentine Republic; John B. Jackson, of New Jersey, Minister to Cuba, to be Minister to the Balkan States; Arthur M. Beaupre, of Illinois, Minister to the Netherlands, to be Minister to Cuba; and Lloyd Bryce, of New York, to be Minister to the Netherlands. All these diplomats, with the exception of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Bryce, have been in the



HON. JOHN G. A. LEISHMAN, WHO SUCCEEDS DR. HILL
AS AMERICAN AMBASSADOR AT BERLIN



Photographs copyright by Harris & Ewing, Washington

ARTHUR M. BEAUPRE, MINISTER
TO CUBA

LARS ANDERSON, WHO GOES
TO BELGIUM

JOHN RIDGELEY CARTER, MINISTER
TO THE BALKAN STATES

THREE RECENT DIPLOMATIC TRANSFERS AND APPOINTMENTS

service for years, and are admirably well fitted by equipment and experience to carry out the present policy of the government to make the American diplomatic corps a permanent service.

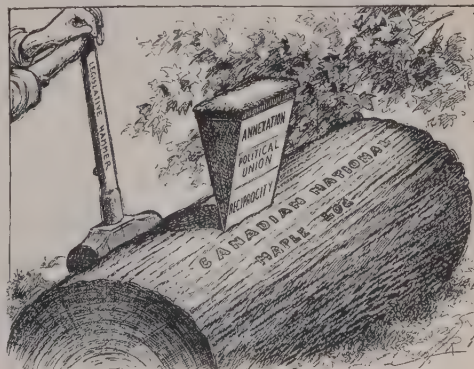
Canadian Parliament Dissolved

On July 26 President Taft affixed his signature to the bill enacting into law, as far as this country is concerned, the reciprocity agreement with Canada. The main points in the progress of the measure have been as follows: The preliminary steps were taken in the negotiations of 1909 over the maximum and minimum clause of the Payne tariff law. The formal negotiations, however, were begun at Albany, when, in March, 1910, President Taft met and conferred with W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance, and William Patterson, the Dominion Minister of Customs. The negotiation of details was begun when Henry M. Hoyt and Charles M. Pepper went to Ottawa in November, 1910, and resumed when Mr. Fielding and Mr. Patterson visited Washington in January last. The agreement was submitted to Congress in a special message by the President on January 26, approved by the Republican House of the last Congress, February 14, and by the Democratic House of the present Congress, April 27, and passed by the Republican Senate on July 22. On the day before President Taft signed the bill, Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his government had decided

to place their political future in the hands of the electorate of the Dominion.

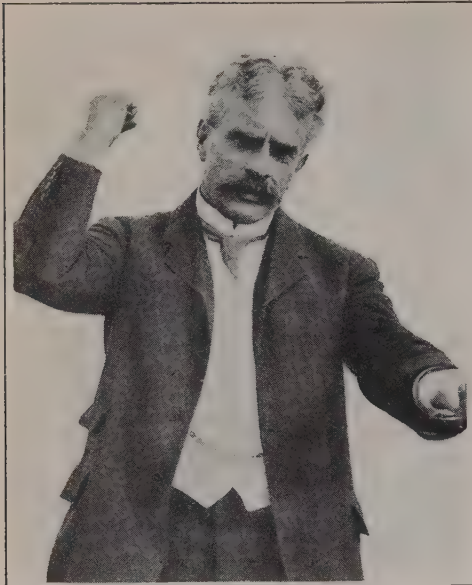
A New Election This Month

Although the passage of the reciprocity bill by the Senate and President Taft's signing of that document put the Laurier Ministry in a somewhat stronger position before the country, the leaders of the Opposition at Ottawa professed to see no change in the situation. They asserted that they would continue to filibuster against the measure, which they denounced as the "entering wedge of a policy looking toward the dissolution of Canada's ties with the mother country." Under Parliamentary rules in



WOULD RECIPROCITY BE THE THIN WEDGE OF
ANNEXATION?

From the *Daily Star* (Montreal)



Copyright by the American Press Association, New York
HON. ROBERT L. BORDEN, LEADER OF THE CANADIAN
OPPOSITION

(As he appeared last month on his whirlwind tour through
the west against reciprocity)

Canada a majority cannot force closure on a question of this nature. Therefore, on July 29, Parliament was dissolved. The date set for nominations was September 14, and for the elections September 21. The Governor-General's proclamation appoints October 11 for the assembling of the new Parliament. It is expected, however, that the meeting will be postponed for a week in order that the new session may be opened formally by the new Governor-General, the Duke of Connaught, who will arrive in Quebec about October 15.

*Laurier's
Prospects*

The two Canadian political chieftains, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, and Mr. R. L. Borden, the Opposition leader, began their election campaigns on August 14, in the Province of Ottawa, within a few miles of each other. Sir Wilfrid is making his canvass wholly on the issue of reciprocity. He insists that closer trade relations with the United States have been the aim of both parties in Canada for forty years. He denounces the annexation bogey as ridiculous and unworthy of consideration. He had a substantial majority of forty-five votes in the last Parliament, and it is generally believed that he will be returned with a safe margin in the next. Sir Wilfrid has the double advantage of having behind him old Canada and new Canada. Himself a native of Quebec, a Frenchman, and a Roman

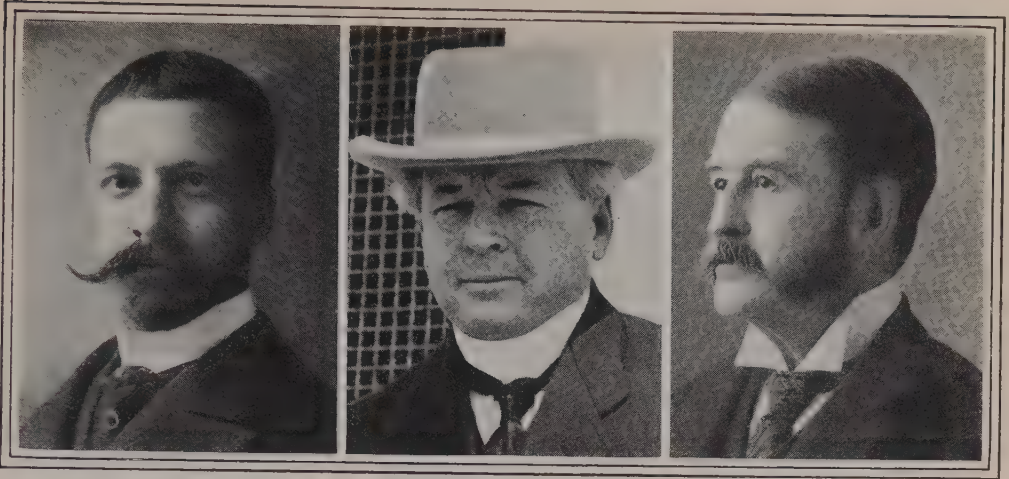
Catholic, the Premier has successfully appealed to his own race and co-religionists, who have kept him in the premiership for many years. On the other hand, he now dominates new Canada also, the great new agricultural provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, and is strong in Manitoba. These western sections are very heartily in favor of reciprocity. Ontario, the stronghold of the protectionist manufacturers, may reject the Laurier program. The small eastern provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, as well as the far western province of British Columbia, are doubtful. Mr. McBride, Premier of British Columbia, has recently joined Mr. Whitney, Premier of Ontario, in public denunciation of the reciprocity idea.

*The
Opposition
Campaign*

Sir Wilfrid has a revolt within his own ranks to face. Henri Bourassa, the French Liberal leader in Quebec, one of the most brilliant of Canadian politicians, while supporting reciprocity, is campaigning against Mr. Laurier on the general record of the Liberal party. He and his constituents, who are strong in the Quebec Province, oppose the naval policy of the government. Opposition leader Borden issued a long manifesto to his followers on August 15. He attacked reciprocity as tending "to disunite the provinces, shatter the ideal of em-



MR. BORDEN CAMPAIGNING LAST MONTH IN
SASKATCHEWAN



HON. HENRI BOURASSA
(French Nationalist leader)

HON. RICHARD McBRIDE
(Premier of British Columbia)

SIR JAMES WHITNEY
(Premier of Ontario)

EMINENT CANADIAN OPPONENTS OF THE LAURIER POLICIES

pire, and reverse the policy of Canadian nationhood." If Canada places itself under the commercial control of the United States, Mr. Borden insists, "its political independence, if retained, will be a shadow and not a substantial reality." Mr. Borden made a whirlwind campaign of the West last month. Several recent important changes in the Canadian cabinet included the appointment of Hon. L. P. Brodeur, until now Minister of Marine and the Fisheries, to be Judge of the Supreme Court; the transfer of Postmaster General Lemieux to succeed Mr.

Brodeur; and the appointment as Postmaster General of H. S. Beland, a Liberal representative from Quebec.

*Mexico,
Panama and
Chile*

On the first day of next month it is expected that the voters of the Republic of Mexico will choose a President to succeed provisional President de la Barra. The campaign is proceeding in an orderly manner, and the only candidates so far announced who apparently stand any chance of election are Francisco Madero and General Bernardo Reyes. In order to secure

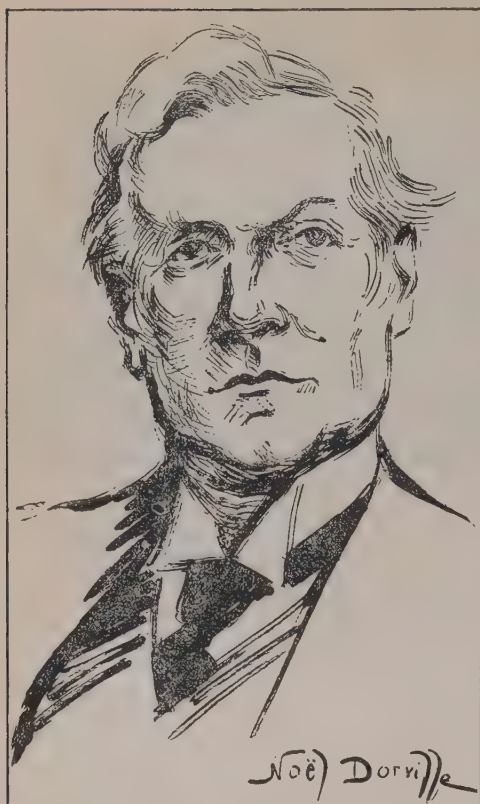


HON. LOUIS P. BRODEUR
(Judge of the Supreme Court)

HON. RODOLPH LEMIEUX
(Minister of Marine)

HON. W. S. FIELDING
(Minister of Finance)

ENTHUSIASTIC ADVOCATES OF RECIPROCITY WITH THE UNITED STATES



PREMIER ASQUITH

(As he appeared last month to a French artist visiting London)

an orderly, fair election. Señor Madero believes that he must remove from office, before October 1, every appointee of General Diaz—judges, from chief justices down to justices of the peace, senators, representatives, governors, sheriffs, army officers, and postal employees, all of whom have been dependent upon the good will of Diaz. These are to be removed from office in order to guarantee peace. It is a great task, and will tax the ability of Señor Madero to the utmost. A curious situation exists in Panama. Nobody wants to be President, at least not just now. Owing to the fact that all of the three Vice-Presidents have ambitions to be elected to the chief office in the land, and because of the fact that under the Panaman law a man cannot be elected President if he has had a government office during the six months preceding the election, all the candidates want a leave of absence of six months. Just what the ultimate result will be is not quite certain. At the other end of South America the Chileans are rejoicing over the fact that although the long delayed award, by King George of England, as arbitrator, in the Alsopp case has been made

in favor of the United States, the amount (\$900,000) is regarded as comparatively small considering the magnitude of the interests involved and the time the claim has been pending.

*Another
Revolution
in Haiti*

A revolution in Haiti and the induction into office of President of the successful revolutionary leader is an event of such frequent occurrence as not to seem of very momentous interest to the rest of the world. Last month the aged Antoine Simon, who had been President since December, 1908, fled from Port-au-Prince, the capital, and the successful revolutionists, led by General Cincinnatus Leconte, made a triumphal entry into the city. On August 14 General Leconte was elected President by the legislature. He is a lawyer by profession, a revolutionary soldier by preference and an intriguer by occupation. The significance to the rest of the world of affairs in Haiti lies chiefly in the fact that in this half of the distracted West Indian island, a French-speaking negro republic is trying to carry out the governmental experiment in which Santo Domingo, the Spanish-speaking republic on the same island, of mixed though largely negro blood, has already so signally failed. The United States Government, it will be remembered, now exercises financial control over the revenues of the Dominican Government. Foreign bondholders of Haiti are already clamoring for American supervision of the affairs of Haiti. The question of the fitness of a people of African blood to administer an independent government, which at one time seemed to have been successfully demonstrated by the Liberian Republic, cannot fail to be of interest and significance to the American people. Haiti's peculiar national problems, as they relate to the larger problems of all the Caribbean peoples, were set forth by General Légitime, a former President of the republic at the Universal Races Congress, held in London late in July. An account of the proceedings of this Congress appears on another page this month.

*Britain's
Grave
Problems*

British politics, domestic and foreign, have occupied the premier place in the world's attention during recent weeks. England's firm stand in the Morocco dispute between Germany and France; the Liberal Government's victory in curtailing the power of the House of Lords; and the industrial war, which by the middle of last month threatened to bring about real anarchy in the British Isles, made British affairs of intense world interest during the



EXCITED UNIONISTS "HOWLING DOWN" THE BRITISH PREMIER IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON JULY 24

weeks of July and early August. Mr. Asquith's pronouncement of Britain's position with regard to Germany's ambitions in Morocco undoubtedly saved France from being forced to humiliating concessions. The surrender of the Lords in the matter of the government's veto bill has effected a constitutional revolution in England. As for the great strikes on the steamships and railroads throughout England, Scotland and Wales, the reports would seem to indicate that Tom Mann, one of the best known of British labor leaders, did not overstate its seriousness when he remarked last month that "for England the present industrial situation signifies a movement never seen since the days of the Norman invasion."

*The Lords
Surrender*

A constitutional revolution was actually achieved in England last month, and an industrial revolution threatened. On August 10, the House of Lords, by a vote of 131 to 114, accepted the government bill providing for the virtual extinction of the peers in the matter of any control of or interference with legislation pertaining to finance. The House of Lords has a membership of 618. Of these only 245 voted on the bill, the greater number abstaining. These 131 peers, however, by the majority of 17, entirely changed the character of the Upper House of Parliament which, under varying names, for a thousand years has been an essential part of the British national legis-

lature. As we noted last month, the Lords passed, on July 20, the bill at its third reading, with certain amendments which would have defeated its main purpose. The intentions of the government were set forth in a letter addressed by the Premier to Mr. Balfour.

When the Parliament bill in the form which it has now assumed returns to the House of Commons we shall be compelled to ask that House to disagree with the Lords' amendments. In the circumstances, should the necessity arise, the government will advise the King to exercise his prerogative to secure the passing into law of the bill in substantially the same form in which it left the House of Commons, and His Majesty has been pleased to signify that he will consider it his duty to accept and act on that advice.

*Disorder
in the
Commons*

On July 24 the Premier rose to make his reply to the amendments of the Lords. The House was crowded as it has not been in many years. Every member was present, and the galleries were crowded with visitors. When Mr. Asquith began to speak, encouraged by vociferous applause from the Radical, Irish and Labor benches, he was met with a storm of denunciation, hisses, and cries of "Traitor" from the Opposition. The interruption lasted so long that the speaker, for the first time in the history of the House of Commons, was compelled to declare the sitting adjourned, because, in his opinion, "the members were comporting themselves in an unseemly manner." The Premier was unable to be heard,



THE GREAT RESISTER: LORD HALSBURY

(This veteran of eighty-six rallied the peers to resist the Parliament Bill to the bitter end)

although he made several efforts. A summary of his undelivered speech appeared in the evening newspapers. In it Mr. Asquith contended that the principles of the bill had been before the people at two elections and had been known to the country for the past four years. No form of referendum, he asserted, that could be devised would indicate more clearly the opinion of the electorate. The government had accepted important amendments in the House of Commons, but had refused to admit the changes proposed by the Lords which would virtually give absolute power to a committee to throw out any bill unacceptable to the peers. The Premier concluded by quoting constitutional writers and the history of the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832, and mentioned the King's promise to create enough peers to insure the passage of the bill. In the reply for the Opposition Mr. Balfour frankly expressed regret at the unseemly action of some of the Unionist members in "howling down" Mr. Asquith. He contended, however, that the Premier had exceeded his prerogatives in proposing to deal with an "ordinary deadlock" between the two houses of Parliament by "taking advantage of a young and inexperienced monarch to drag the crown in the dust and abuse the

confidence of the sovereign," in order to secure the creation of new peers.

*The Losing
Battle of the
Peers*

During the few days following these stormy sessions of Parliament, Mr. Asquith negotiated with the Unionist leaders for guaranties that the Lords would accept the bill when it was again returned to them shorn of its amendments. Otherwise, he informed them that the list of names for the peerage would be submitted to the King at once. Ever since the government bill has been before the Upper House the peers have divided into those who favored a compromise and the irreconcilables, who had become known as the "No-Surrenderites," and the "Die-in-the-Last-Ditchers." Lord Lansdowne was the leader of those who favored the government's measure—"since the veto bill plus the puppet peers is worse than the veto bill without them." The "No-Surrenderites" were led by the veteran Lord Halsbury, now in his eighty-seventh year, who was Lord Chancellor from 1895 to 1905. At the memorable session of August 10, Lord Morley, who piloted the government case through the Upper House, read the formal consent of the King to the creation of as many peers as might be found necessary to meet the demands of the government. Lord Rosebery and Lord Lansdowne then mildly urged the peers to accept the government's measure, or to abstain from voting, while Lord Milner and the Duke of Norfolk and other of the higher nobility took their places with the "Die-in-the-Last-Ditchers."

*The
Surrender*

The fateful proposition upon which the Lords surrendered—"drank the hemlock," in the epigrammatic political phrase of the day—was in the form of a resolution that the Peers would not insist upon the Marquis of Lansdowne's amendments, excluding the Home Rule bill, the Protestant succession, and "other grave matters" from the terms of the bill. This removed all the amendments of the Lords and left the measure in its original form as it came from the Commons. The official report recorded in the documents of Parliament for August 10, 1911, contains the bare announcement couched in the most formal, official terms: "A message has been received from the House of Lords stating that they will not insist upon their amendments to the Parliament bill to which the House of Commons had disagreed, and that they have agreed to the inconsequential amendment to the bill proposed by the House of Commons." The bill

became a law by royal assent on August 18. Thus goes on record what is doubtless the greatest victory achieved by a British Liberal Prime Minister in a century. Unionists passed the bill in the upper chamber, but history will record it as a triumph for Mr. Asquith, a triumph all the greater since it has been achieved by a coalition majority in the Commons over which the government has not had absolute control. Mr. Balfour's threat that a future Conservative government will restore the Upper House to its full veto power is, of course, an idle one. No Englishman or foreigner believes that Great Britain will go backward. His resolution to censure the government for its advice to the King, moreover, was overwhelmingly beaten.

*Usefulness of
the Lords Not
Impaired*

The result has not been to seriously impair the usefulness of the House of Lords. That chamber still maintains its integrity, although, by the will of the people it has been deprived of some of its powers. The peers can still retard objectionable and emotional legislation for two years. They can still, if they will, exert a wholesome check on the House of Commons. The practical effect of the change made in the British constitution by the new bill is to give the final decision in all matters of legisla-

tion to the Commons. The absolute control exercised by members of the lower house in all financial matters has never been disputed. The only points of controversy between the Lords and the Commons have arisen when other legislation "not germane to finance is tacked on to money bills." This was the case, the peers claimed, when the Lords threw out the Lloyd-George budget two years ago. Under the terms of the bill just accepted by the Peers, the speaker of the House of Commons will hereafter decide, in case of dispute, whether or not a bill, or any portion of a bill is, or is not concerned with finance. Moreover, other bills of any sort whatsoever passed by the Commons in the future become law, even if the Lords reject them, provided certain formalities have been complied with, a certain period of time has elapsed, and after that interval the Commons remain of the same mind.

*Home
Rule
Next*

Irish leaders have publicly announced that, in return for their unwavering support of the government in the veto matter, they now expect that a bill giving Home Rule for Ireland will be introduced and passed at once. The Lords will most certainly object to such a measure, and will, beyond a doubt, exercise their pre-



IS THIS WHY BRITISH LABOR HAS BEEN STRIKING?

(It is computed that £20,000,000 was spent on the recent coronation. "After sixty years of Free Trade, it is estimated that one-third of the British people live on the verge of starvation."—*News Item*)

This cartoon originally appeared in the *Sydney Bulletin*, and was reproduced in the London *Daily Chronicle* as being particularly appropriate during the great labor strike



HON. RAMSAY MACDONALD, CHAIRMAN OF THE
PARLIAMENTARY LABOR COMMITTEE

(Who was prominent last month in the government's efforts to settle the big strike)

rogative of holding it up for two years. Then should the present House continue its existence and no general elections upset Mr. Asquith's government, Home Rule may become a law in the autumn of 1913. Parliament was to have adjourned on August 18 until the winter session. The government's legislative program, however, had become so congested, owing to the long delay in settling the veto question with the Lords, that an autumn session, beginning in October, has been found

necessary. In the last days of the summer session a resolution, introduced by Chancellor Lloyd-George, to pay members of the House of Commons \$2,000 annually for their services was passed by a large majority. The adjournment of the session was delayed by the great dock and railroad strikes which assumed grave national proportions at the time the government was winning its triumph in the veto matter.

*Industrial
War in
England*

Not for more than a century has England been in the throes of such a violent industrial and social crisis as last month when the labor situation reached an acute phase in the strike violence in London, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, and other cities, and a large proportion of the regular army was ordered out by the government to maintain order and protect the railroads in operating their trains. Beginning in the early summer with the strike of dock handlers and laborers on steamships, and later followed by the railroad and other transportation workers, the labor situation in England had daily grown more serious until, last month, frequent collisions had occurred between the mob and the police and military in the streets of London and Liverpool. More than one large city was in peril of a food famine. A general strike had been declared involving nearly 200,000 men, and it seemed as though actual anarchy had been precipitated throughout the Kingdom.

*Causes of
the
Discontent*

British labor, which is more highly unionized than that of any other country in the world, has been dissatisfied and loudly expressing its discontent ever since the enactment into law of Chancellor Lloyd-George's famous conciliation act. In 1907, the Chancellor, himself the author of the now pending old age pensions and unemployment relief schemes, piloted through Parliament an act providing for certain agreements between employers and employees which should prevent strikes for the following seven years. Mr. Lloyd-George, then President of the Board of Trade, and Richard Bell, then Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, drew up this scheme. It prescribed that all disputes should be settled by conciliation boards composed of representatives of the companies and the men, with two arbitrators chosen from the House of Lords. In case of dispute, no strike was to be declared before the year 1914. No specific grievance is alleged as a reason for the present serious strike situation, and the men



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POLICEMEN DIRECTING 17,000 LONDON DOCK STRIKERS ON THEIR MARCH FROM CONNAUGHT GATE TO EAST LONDON DOCKS

admit that the disputes have, in most cases, been settled. Yet, in the words of one of their leaders "the British laboring man is hopelessly dissatisfied with the working of the scheme and bitterly laments the slowness of the results it yields." The men claim that it gives the companies the power to postpone acting upon demands. Despite their agreement, the men have accordingly broken with the companies, and by the middle of last month, it was estimated that 400,000 workers, men and women, had gone out. Most of them were employed in the transportation industries, and very soon railroads, street car lines and river service were crippled, and in seventeen cities and larger towns all the teamsters, truckmen and freight handlers had struck.

The Government Intervenes The British Isles produce, perhaps, less of the necessities of every day life for their own people than any other country in the world. The available provision supplies of London and other great British cities are always small and must be constantly renewed. A few days "hold up" of the transportation

lines spells disaster for the inhabitants of these urban centers. At one time last month Liverpool was actually within forty-eight hours of the pinch of hunger, and the price of provisions had arisen in the other towns of England and Scotland to unheard of points. As soon as the great railway systems of England and Scotland were threatened with a practical tie up, and the disorder in Manchester and Liverpool had reached a point such as has not been witnessed in a European city since the days of the Commune in Paris, the government stepped in. Several conferences were held between the managers of the railway, Mr. Sydney Buxton, the President of the Board of Trade, the executive committee of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, the chairman of the Parliamentary Labor committee. The Cabinet also held special sessions to consider the situation. Meanwhile the disorder had increased and Mr. Winston Churchill, Home Secretary, had called out the regular troops to assist the police. At one time more than 50,000 of the military were on strike duty in London alone.



A VIEW OF AGADIR FROM THE SEA WITH ITS CITADEL ON THE HILL

descended to the bargain counter stage. It is now evident that the bargain has been made, but the terms thereof are not known to the general public. Furthermore, if we may judge from the guarded announcements issued by the German, French, and British foreign offices, it will be some time before the details are made known to the world. During the first half of July the news despatches were full of guesses as to the character of the Franco-German diplomatic "conversations" over Morocco. Baron Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter, the German Foreign Min-

A Protracted Struggle

The companies in general refused the demands of the men and insisted upon a strict adherence to the terms of the conciliation agreement of 1907. The strike leaders, for their part, declared that they would fight to the bitter end. Then, on August 19, chiefly through the efforts of Chancellor Lloyd-George, a settlement was effected. A joint committee of five, consisting of two representatives of the companies and two of the men, with a neutral chairman, was appointed by the government to investigate thoroughly all the workings of the Conciliation Act of 1907. This the men consider the root of all their grievances. The strikers agreed to return to their work at once, and the companies pledged themselves to abide by any decision made by the committee with regard to an increase of wages or the regulation of hours of work. It was agreed to submit all disputed questions to the Board of Trade.



PROFESSIONAL ETIQUETTE

SULTAN OF MOROCCO: "Hallo! Another doctor! Hadn't you better hold a consultation?"

GERMAN SURGEON: "Well, to tell the truth, I hadn't thought of consulting these other gentlemen. I rather meant to operate on my own account. Still, if there's a general feeling in favor of a conversazione——"

From *Punch* (London)

The Bargain Over Morocco

In these pages last month we remarked that by the middle of July the Moroccan dispute between France and Germany had

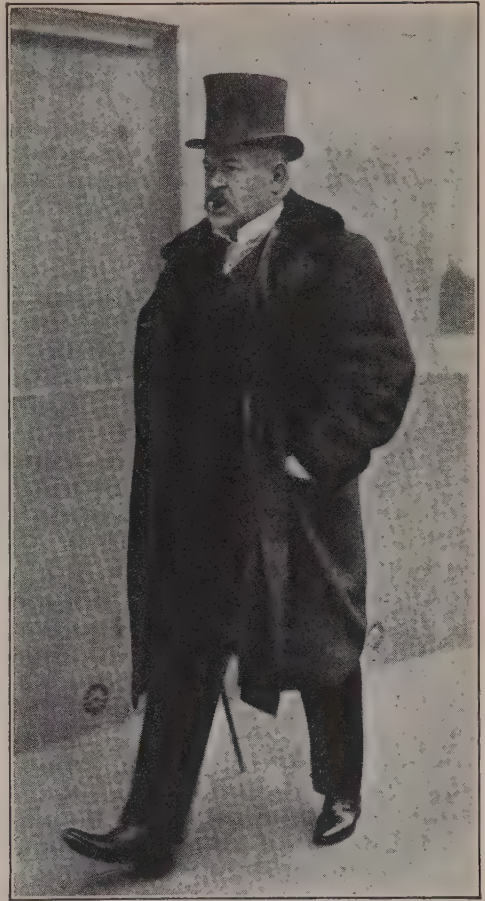
ister, and M. Jules Cambon, French Ambassador at Berlin, conducted the negotiations. After two weeks of these exchanges the German press began to refer to them as "conversations concerning African questions," intimating that Germany sought compensation outside of Morocco for withdrawing from Agadir. The French press, on the other hand, boldly asserted that the Germans were demanding, as the price of giving France a free hand in Morocco, the cession to her of almost the whole of French Congo and the transfer of the French contingent rights over the Belgian Congo, a price which the Paris Government indirectly let it be known would never be paid. A number of Belgian journals also have published vigorous protests against the cession to any third power of the right of preëmption over the Congo, which is now vested in France. On another page, this month (305), we present to our readers a vivid account, by one who knows African questions at first hand from years of travel, of the solid achievements of French



M. JULES CAMBON, AMBASSADOR OF FRANCE, AND HERR VON KIDERLEN-WAECHTER, THE GERMAN FOREIGN SECRETARY, DISCUSSING IN BERLIN THE EXTRAORDINARY SITUATION BROUGHT ABOUT BY THE AGADIR INCIDENT

(From a sketch by L. Sabattier in the *Illustrated London News*)

administration and the German colonization on the dark continent. The text and illustrations of this article indicate graphically the large stake for which Germans and Frenchmen are now playing. The only one not consulted in the matter is the Sultan of Morocco.

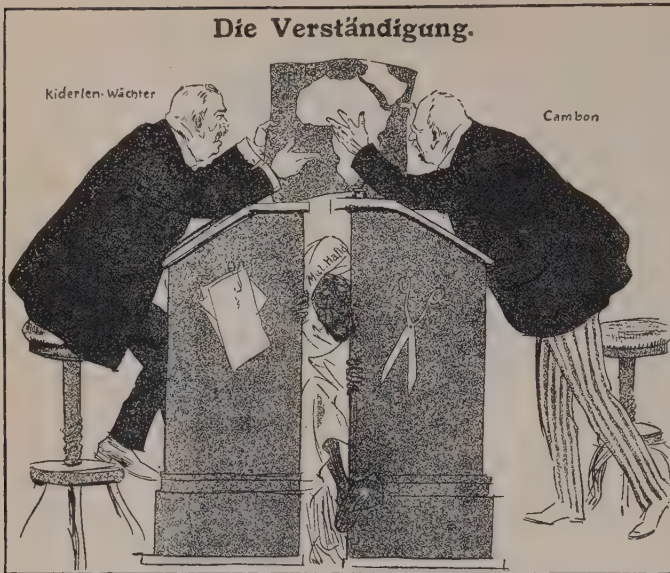


BARON ALFRED VON KIDERLEN-WAECHTER, THE PUGNACIOUS GERMAN FOREIGN MINISTER

*Britain's
Firm
Stand*

The problem assumed the proportions of an international question of the first magnitude on July 22, when David Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and one of the most important members of the British Cabinet, addressing the bankers of London, declared that while the British Government did not propose to express any opinion regarding the sovereign rights of France and Germany to settle colonial questions that concerned them alone, nevertheless, he was quite sure he spoke for all his official colleagues when he said,

if a situation were to be forced upon us in which peace could only be preserved by the surrender of the great and beneficent position Britain has won by centuries of heroism and achievement, by allowing Britain to be treated where her interests were vitally affected as if she were of no account in the cabinet of nations, then I say emphatically peace at that price would be a humiliation intolerable for a great country like ours to endure.



THE SITUATION AS MOROCCO SEES IT

SULTAN MULAY HAFID (in between the strenuous German and French foreign offices): "Something is going to happen to me. I wish I knew what."
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

This utterance of the Chancellor was followed by three other significant speeches in the House of Commons on July 26. In a paper, written and read,—an unusual method in the House of Commons, indicating that great weight and official sanction was to be attached to the document,—Premier Asquith declared that it was the hope of King George's government that a settlement, satisfactory and honorable to both France and Germany, might be reached between them, and one in no way prejudicial to Britain's interests.

But, failing such a settlement, we must become an active party in the discussion of the situation. That would be our right as a signatory to the Treaty of Algeiras, as it might be our obligation under the terms of our agreement of 1904 with France. It might be our duty in defence of British interests directly affected by further developments.

Mr. Balfour, speaking for the Opposition, pledged his support to the government in the course indicated by Mr. Asquith. He continued in these words:

If there are any outside these walls who had counted upon differences and absorption in home disputes in the hope that they would make easy a policy which in other circumstances this country might reject; and if there are any who supposed that we would be wiped off the map of Europe because we have our difficulties at home, it may be worth while saying that they utterly mistake the temper of the British people and the patriotism of the Opposition.

This statement, furthermore, was endorsed by Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, leader of the Labor party in Parliament. Although utterly opposed to war, Mr. Macdonald said he hoped "no European nation would assume for a single moment that party divisions have weakened the national spirit."

Nevertheless, the Labor parties of Germany, France and England can be counted on to cooperate to the very last moment in seeking peace and in preventing two professedly Christian nations from resorting to the arbitrament of the sword over a difficulty that might easily be settled at The Hague.

Thus all the groups of the government coalition as well as the opposition supported the Premier.

These utterances clarified the situation. They were interpreted in France as an indication that Britain was in earnest and meant to see that the republic was not humiliated. The German Kaiser hastily returned from a Norwegian tour; it was reported that a British fleet had been ordered concentrated on the North Sea, and that France and Germany had each called out 400,000 of their reserves. The semi-official German press began to assert defiantly that the speeches of Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd-George were virtual threats and that Germany would not withdraw under pressure. For a few days war was in the air. On July 29, however, a statement appeared in the semi-official *Hamburger Nachrichten*, in which it was asserted that Russia, the friend of all the nations concerned in the Moroccan dispute, had succeeded in bringing all the foreign offices concerned to such an understanding that "the rough edges of England's brutal selfishness" had been rubbed off, and a peaceful solution of the difficulty was in sight. This has been taken by the world to indicate that, in the language of the street, the Kaiser had "climbed down." It is now believed that France is aiming to bring about another European conference at which she will submit the entire Moroccan question for a permanent, definitive settlement.

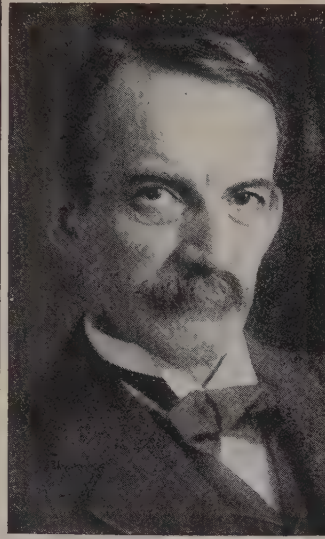
Aviation
Notes

August was an active month for the aviators.

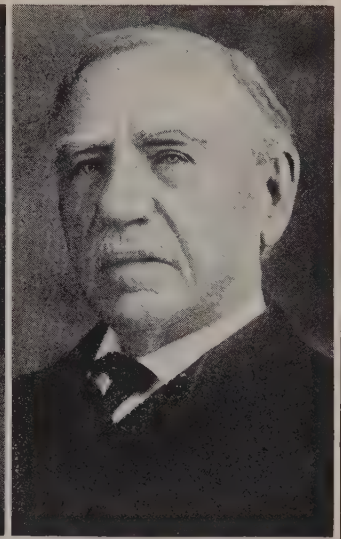
Some notable triumphs and regrettable disasters were registered. The great Chicago meet, lasting from the 12th to the 20th, furnished a series of thrilling performances, at times as many as a dozen machines being in the air. About two score of the world's famous flyers competed, and hundreds of thousands of people witnessed the flights each day. A half-dozen odd flyers fell into Lake Michigan without sustaining serious injuries. Two real disasters, however, occurred on the fourth day of the meet, August 15, when both William C. Badger and St. Croix Johnstone were killed. Badger's aeroplane came into contact with the side of a gulley in the field and fell into the pit, crushing him beneath the wreckage. Johnstone's motor exploded and he and his machine fell into the water. During the Chicago meet Harry N. Atwood alighted on the field in the course of his cross-country flight from St. Louis to New York. Atwood had started from St. Louis on August 14, and, with various stops on the way, was due to arrive at New York on Wednesday, August 23. The successful completion of this trip of 1269 miles, as shown by the map on the following page, would constitute a world's record for an aerial journey, giving to America laurels in long-distance flights. Many of the foreign flyers, as well as Americans, who took part in the Chicago meet, will participate in the Harvard aviation meet, to take place at the Squantum aviation field during the period from August 26 to September 4.

Two Eminent Public
Servants

Among the public men recently removed from the field of service, by death, Edward M. Shepard, the New York lawyer and eminent Democrat, had at various times figured importantly in political affairs, although he never held an elective office. His vigorous and successful efforts as the prosecutor of ballot frauds in 1893 attracted the attention of State and nation, and his service in that capacity was the more conspicuous because it resulted in the punishment of leaders in his own political party.

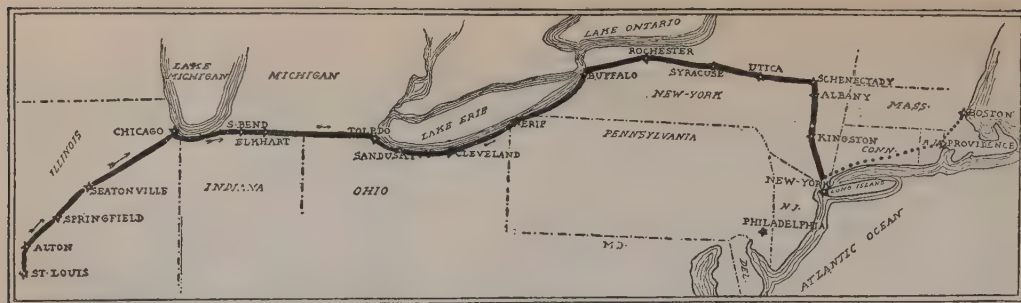


Photograph by Brown Bros., New York
MR. EDWARD M. SHEPARD



Copyright by Harris & Ewing, Washington
SENATOR WILLIAM P. FRYE

Mr. Shepard headed an independent Democratic movement in Brooklyn and was an unsuccessful candidate for Mayor. After consolidation, in 1901, he was the regular Democratic candidate for Mayor of Greater New York, but was defeated by Mr. Low. Perhaps Mr. Shepard's greatest service to the community was rendered as a trustee of the College of the City of New York. It was he who planned far in advance and in the event did more than any other man, it is said, to bring about the location of the splendid group of buildings on the commanding site now occupied by that institution. Mr. Shepard was a public servant, in the truest sense, who found the field of his life work in his native city. In the death of Senator William P. Frye, of Maine, on the eighth of last month, the country lost a servant whose activities for more than forty years had been related almost wholly to national affairs. He began his service in the House of Representatives in 1870 and after ten years in that body was promoted to the Senate, where he has remained for five terms without interruption. For the past fifteen years Mr. Frye had been President *pro tempore* of the Senate. In 1898 he was chosen by President McKinley to head the commission appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace with Spain. In this, as in all other responsibilities with which he was entrusted during his long career, his fidelity to the public interest was unchallenged and his personal integrity unassailed.



THE LONGEST JOURNEY MADE BY AEROPLANE

(H. N. Atwood's route from St. Louis to New York)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From July 20 to August 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

July 20.—In the Senate, Mr. Jones (Rep., Wash.) speaks in favor of the Canadian Reciprocity bill, and Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) attacks it.

July 21.—In the Senate, the debate on the Reciprocity bill is closed, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) speaking against the measure.

July 22.—The Senate passes the Canadian Reciprocity bill, unamended, by vote of 53 to 27.

July 24.—The Senate ratifies the fur seal treaty.

July 26.—In the Senate, the bill revising the wool schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff is discussed; an inquiry into the value of the Sherman law is ordered. . . . In the House, the Democratic bill revising the cotton schedule is introduced.

July 27.—The Senate, by a coalition of "Progressive" Republicans and Democrats, passes a compromise Wool bill as a substitute for the House measure.

July 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Newlands (Dem., Nev.) urges his amendment to the Farmers' Free List providing for a gradual reduction of prohibitive duties. . . . The House begins debate upon the Cotton bill.

July 31.—In the Senate, Mr. Smoot (Rep., Utah) speaks against changes in the sugar schedule, and Mr. Owen (Dem., Okla.) upholds the principle of the recall in the judiciary.

August 1.—The Senate passes the Farmers' Free List bill by a coalition of Democrats and "Progressives"; the Reapportionment bill is opposed by Messrs. Root (Rep., N. Y.) and Burton (Rep., Ohio). . . . The House debates the Cotton bill.

August 2.—In the Senate, the members from New York, Messrs. O'Gorman (Dem.) and Root (Rep.), speak, respectively, for and against the Reapportionment bill; Mr. Lippitt (Rep., R. I.) argues against cotton revision.

August 3.—The Senate passes the Reapportionment bill with several amendments. . . . The House passes the Cotton Revision bill, thirty Republicans voting with the Democrats.

August 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Bourne (Rep., Ore.) speaks in favor of the radical Arizona constitution.

August 7.—In the Senate, Messrs. Root (Rep., N. Y.) and Borah (Rep., Ida.) speak against the recall of judges in the Arizona constitution.

August 8.—The Senate passes the Statehood bill, with an amendment requiring Arizona to vote again on the recall of judges.

August 10.—The Senate debates the resolution of Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) abolishing the Monetary Commission. . . . The House accepts without debate the Senate amendments to the Statehood bill.

August 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Burton (Rep., Ohio) discusses the work of the Monetary Commission.

August 12.—In the Senate, the arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France are reported from the Committee on Foreign Relations with an amendment eliminating certain powers conferred on the Joint High Commission; an investigation of the election of Mr. Stephenson (Rep., Wis.) is ordered.

August 14.—The Senate orders the dissolution of the National Monetary Commission by January 8, next. . . . The House, by vote of 206 to 90, adopts the Wool bill prepared by the conference committee.

August 15.—In the Senate, a coalition of Democrats and Progressive Republicans passes the conference Wool bill, 38 to 28.

August 17.—The Senate passes the Cotton bill, with many radical amendments; by a straight party vote, an amendment to the measure is adopted, offered by Mr. Overman (Dem., N. C.), revising the chemical schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. . . . The House adopts conference committees' reports on the Farmers' Free List and Campaign Publicity bills.

August 18.—The Senate adopts a resolution admitting Arizona and New Mexico to statehood under conditions conforming with the views of President Taft. . . . The House fails to pass the Wool and Farmers' Free List bills over the President's vetoes.

August 19.—The House passes the new measure granting statehood to Arizona and New Mexico and the bill abolishing the Monetary Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

July 22.—The voters of Texas declare against statewide prohibition by a majority of 6000 out of 462,000 votes.

July 23.—President Taft issues a statement at Beverly, Mass., expressing his gratification at the

passage of the Reciprocity bill and acknowledging the aid of the Democrats.

July 24.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders material reductions in freight rates from the middle and eastern sections of the country to points between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast.

July 25.—The Nebraska Republican Convention, at Lincoln, endorses the administration of President Taft.

July 31.—It is estimated that Governor Dix, of New York, has vetoed legislative appropriations amounting to more than \$7,000,000. . . . The Interstate Commerce Commission sustains the proposed increases in commutation rates of a number of railroads entering New York City, except those of the Pennsylvania Railroad.

August 1.—Former-Governor James K. Vardaman, of Texas, wins the Democratic nomination for United States Senator by a majority of 20,000, defeating Senator Percy. . . . The commission appointed by President Taft to inquire into magazine postage rates holds its first session in New York City. . . . Postal savings banks are opened in New York, Chicago, and Boston. . . . John Kenlon, who received the highest mark in the Civil Service examination, is appointed chief of the New York Fire Department.

August 4.—The Government's suit to dissolve the soft-coal combination is begun in the Circuit Court at Columbus.

August 5.—Ex-President Roosevelt testifies before the Congressional Steel Investigating Committee, at New York, that he permitted the Steel Trust to absorb the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company, in 1907, in order to check the panic, and asserts that the result justified his action.

August 8.—A number of diplomatic changes are announced, including the transfer of Minister Leishman from Italy to Germany and the appointment of Lars Anderson and Lloyd Bryce as ministers to Belgium and the Netherlands, respectively.

August 10.—The federal Court of Appeals, at New York City, upholds the conviction of three officers of the United Wireless Telegraph Company, for using the mails to defraud investors.

August 15.—President Taft vetoes the resolution admitting Arizona and New Mexico to statehood, condemning certain provisions in their constitutions.

August 16.—Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, chief chemist of the Department of Agriculture, testifies before the Congressional investigating committee that he never received the letter on which the charges against him were based.

August 17.—President Taft vetoes the bill revising the wool schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, on the ground that Congress should wait until the Tariff Board reports upon that schedule.

August 18.—President Taft vetoes the Farmers' Free List bill, alleging that it is loosely drawn.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

July 20.—Cape Haitien is captured by the Haitian revolutionists; President Simon reorganizes his cabinet.

July 22.—The Haitian rebels march toward Port-au-Prince; the cruiser *Des Moines* is sent to protect American interests.

July 24.—Premier Asquith, attempting to announce in the British House of Commons that unless the Veto bill is passed unamended the royal prerogative to create new peers will be invoked, is howled down by the extreme Tory faction. . . . The Haitian Government declares a "paper" blockade of several ports; the American minister informs President Simon that for the decree to be recognized the blockade must be real. . . . Martial law is proclaimed at Teheran, Persia, and the Premier's resignation is demanded by the National Council.

July 25.—Continued obstruction to the Reciprocity bill at Ottawa leads to a decision to dissolve Parliament and hold a general election.

July 26.—King George, in view of the complicated state of European politics, holds audiences with Government and Opposition leaders in order to avert a national crisis over the Veto bill.

July 28.—Haitian troops defeat the revolutionists at Les Cayes; a fifth American warship is ordered to Haiti. . . . Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Canadian Premier, announces a plan of cooperation between the navies of Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. . . . Radical changes in the organization of the French army are announced.

July 29.—The Canadian Parliament is dissolved and a general election is set for September 21. . . . The Persian Government sets a reward of \$100,000 upon the head of the ex-Shah. . . . The opening of Congress at Quito, Ecuador, is accompanied by street-fighting between followers of General Alfara and President-elect Estrada.

July 30.—Sir Wilfrid Laurier opens the campaign in Canada, accusing the Conservatives of being false to their traditions; R. L. Borden, the Opposition leader, justifies the tactics which have brought reciprocity before the people.

August 1.—The revolutionists gain the upper hand in Haiti and President Simon consents to leave the country.

August 2.—Turkey offers concessions to the Albanian tribesmen refugees in Montenegro. . . . The Mexican Secretary of the Interior, Emilio Gomez, resigns at the request of President de la Barra.

August 3.—The Liberal leaders of Great Britain decide to send the Veto bill to the House of Lords without creating new peers.

August 4.—Ex-President Simon leaves Haiti on board a Dutch steamer bound for Jamaica.

August 6.—General Leconte, one of the revolutionary leaders, is proclaimed President of Haiti. . . . Chile accepts the bid of an English shipbuilding concern for the construction of two dreadnoughts.

August 8.—A vote of censure on the Government is passed in the British House of Lords by a majority of 214.

August 10.—The Veto bill, unamended, is accepted by the House of Lords by a vote of 131 to 114, more than 300 peers refusing to vote; the House of Commons votes for the payment of a salary of \$2000 to members.

August 14.—General Cincinnatus Leconte is elected President by the Haitian Congress.

August 15.—Premier Laurier of Canada and the Opposition leader, R. L. Borden, deliver important speeches for and against reciprocity.

August 18.—Royal assent is given to the Veto bill, limiting the power of the British upper house. . . . The Russian Government awards contracts for the construction of three battleships.

August 19.—The Portuguese National Assembly signs the constitution of the new republic. . . . Emilio Estrada is declared elected as President of Ecuador.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

July 21.—The Persian Government criticises Great Britain and Russia for indifference concerning the present activity of the deposed Shah, Mohammed Ali Mirza.

July 26.—Queen Wilhelmina of Holland visits King Albert at Brussels; it is rumored that an agreement is contemplated to act jointly in the event of their countries, neutrality being threatened.

July 28.—The terms of the Franco-Spanish *modus vivendi* to prevent trouble at Alcazar, Morocco, are outlined by the Spanish Premier. . . . The Portuguese Republic again protests against Spain's permitting anti-republican plotters to meet in Spanish territory.

July 29.—The Austrian Premier announces governmental opposition to the importation of American meat.

July 31.—The Russian minister to Persia moves to force the resignation of the American Treasurer-General, W. M. Shuster.

August 1.—The German minister to Persia joins in the movement against the American Treasurer-General.

August 2.—Two newspaper correspondents, one an American, are expelled from Agadir, Morocco.

August 3.—New arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France, practically unlimited in their scope, are signed at Washington. . . . The International Peace Conference, at Berne, Switzerland, takes steps to form a permanent bureau of peace.

August 4.—It is reported from Berlin that an agreement has been reached, involving the trading of colonial possessions, in the dispute between France and Germany over Morocco; the Kaiser is bitterly assailed by several German newspapers for his timidity (see page 305).

August 5.—A battle is reported between Colombian and Peruvian troops in the disputed territory of Caqueta.

August 6.—Laboring men of France and Spain meet in Madrid to protest against military operations by their governments in Morocco.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

July 20.—It is announced at Lima, Peru, that Miss Annie Peck has ascended two peaks of the volcano Coropuna, nearly 20,000 feet high. . . . *Schwaben I.*, Count Zeppelin's new dirigible balloon, makes the round trip between Friedrichshafen and Lucerne, carrying eight passengers.

July 21.—The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company is awarded the new subway system of New York City, comprising 87 miles of underground and elevated lines, to cost \$235,000,000.

July 23.—Fire devastates two square miles of the Stamboul district of Constantinople, destroying more than 5000 houses.

July 24.—Earth shocks are felt at Guatemala City and Curaçao.

July 26.—Golden Gate Park is selected as the site for the Panama-Pacific Exposition at San Francisco in 1915. . . . Lieutenant Conneau, of the French army, wins the 1000-mile aeroplane race around England and Scotland, begun on July 22. . . . The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, New York City, announces a 5-cent fare to Coney Island during certain hours. . . . The Universal Races Congress opens at London (see page 339).

July 27.—Eight persons are killed in a head-on collision between freight and passenger trains near Charlotte, N. C.

July 31.—More than 150 cotton mills in the Carolinas are closed because of drought. . . . Forest fires in the mountains of Southern California spread rapidly over large areas. . . . Work is begun on the recently authorized subway system in New York City. . . . The Standard Oil Company announces its plan of dissolution to conform with the Supreme Court's decision.

August 2.—A strike of 12,000 dock laborers is declared at London.

August 3.—One hundred cases of pellagra are reported in Bell and Whiteley Counties, Ky.

August 4.—Admiral Togo is welcomed on his arrival at New York City by officials of the nation, State, and city.

August 5.—A lockout is declared against 19,000 metal workers in Leipsic and Thuringia, Germany. . . . Scores of persons are injured during rioting by striking street-car employees in Brooklyn, New York City. . . . Two aviators, Lincoln Beachey and Hugh A. Robinson, fly from New York to Philadelphia (112 miles) in 2 hours and 22 minutes. . . . Captain Felix, of France, ascends in an aeroplane to a height of 11,330 feet.

August 6.—The strike of trolley men at Des Moines is ended by a court order obtained by city officials; the dispute is to be settled later.

August 8.—The London dock strike spreads, it being estimated that 70,000 men are out.

August 9.—The French steamer *Emir* founders in the Mediterranean after a collision with a British steamer; 86 of the passengers and crew are drowned. . . . The tenth Zionist Congress opens at Basle, Switzerland. . . . The Government report shows a serious condition of the grain crops, the worst in ten years. . . . The Carlton Hotel, in London, is partially destroyed by fire, one person being burned to death. . . . Jules Vedrines, flying near Paris, covers more than 500 miles in about eight hours, a new record for distance.

August 10.—Pope Pius X, suffering from gout, withstands a minor operation to relieve pain.

August 11.—The London carmen's and lightermen's strikes are settled; the dock strike at Liverpool grows more serious.

August 12.—Dr. Doyen, of Paris, after five years' experimenting, announces a cure for the foot-and-mouth disease of cattle.

August 13.—A negro accused of murder is burned to death by a mob at Coatesville, Pa. . . . A fast Pennsylvania Railroad train from Chicago to New York is wrecked near Ft. Wayne, Ind.; four persons are killed and thirty injured.

August 14.—Harry N. Atwood starts from St. Louis in an attempt to fly to New York, and reaches Chicago. . . . A strike is declared among the dock workers and railway men of Liverpool.

August 15.—A general strike of 100,000 railway employees throughout Great Britain is threatened; several strike sympathizers in Liverpool are killed when government troops are compelled to fire upon the rioters. . . . Two aviators lose their lives at the Chicago meet.

August 16.—Three men are arrested at Coatesville, Pa., in connection with the burning of the negro.

August 17.—A general strike is declared on all British railways. . . . An official report indicates a total of 632 deaths from cholera in Italy during five days.

August 18.—The efforts of several members of the British cabinet to settle the railway strike are without apparent result; service on the roads is seriously affected and a food scarcity is imminent. . . . The price of beef in New York City advances to a point 54 per cent. higher than on December 1.

August 19.—An agreement is reached in the British Railway strike, mainly through the efforts of Chancellor Lloyd-George, whereby the dispute is to be referred to a royal commission. . . . Andre Jaeger-Schmidt, a French journalist attempting to circle the globe in forty days, sails from New York; barring accident he will arrive in Paris on the fortieth day.

August 20.—Harry Atwood arrives at Lyons, N. Y., in his aeroplane flight from St. Louis to New York; his actual flying time for the 930 miles so far accomplished is less than twenty hours.

OBITUARY

July 19.—Rev. Dr. Caleb Cook Baldwin, translator of the Bible into Chinese and compiler of a Chinese-English dictionary, 91.

July 20.—Johann Martin Schleyer, inventor of the international language known as "Volapük," 80. . . . Charles Walter Stetson, a noted artist, 52.

July 22.—Sir Percy William Bunting, editor of the *Contemporary Review*, 75 (see page 352).

July 23.—John W. Tomlinson, Democratic national committeeman for Alabama, 52. . . . Edwin A. Nash, formerly justice of the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court, 74.

July 25.—Ex-Congressman George Washington Kipp, of Pennsylvania, 64. . . . Joseph F. Tucker, a widely known railroad man of Chicago, 76.

July 26.—Minneta Taylor, a noted linguist and author of textbooks, 51.

July 27.—Edward Rutledge, a prominent lumberman of Wisconsin, 78.

July 28.—Edward M. Shepard, the noted New York lawyer and prominent Democrat, 61. . . . Major William P. Atwell, U. S. A., retired, American consul at Ghent, 66. . . . Naoum Pacha, Turkish ambassador to France.

July 29.—Robert Dewey Benedict, a prominent Vermont lawyer and compiler of law volumes, 81.

July 31.—Frederick Loeser, founder of the well-known department store of Brooklyn, N. Y., 77.

August 1.—Edwin A. Abbey, the noted American artist, 59 (see page 300). . . . Rev. Dr. Willard Francis Mallalieu, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 83.

August 2.—Rt. Rev. Francis Paget, D.D., Bishop of Oxford, 60. . . . Very Rev. Robert Gregory, D.D., formerly dean of St. Paul's (London), 92. . . . Leslie Coombs Bruce, the well-known rifle shot and publisher of *Turf, Field and Farm*, 62.

August 3.—Edward Murphy, four times mayor of Troy, N. Y., 75. . . . Prof. Reinhold Begas, the eminent German sculptor, 80.

August 5.—Bishop Oscar Penn Fitzgerald, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, a widely known editor and author, 82. . . . Cardinal Gruscha, of Austria. . . . Col. William C. Green, the copper-mine operator, 60. . . . Franklin H. King, of Wisconsin, a noted agricultural scientist, 63.

August 6.—Rev. Dr. William Wallace Atterbury, the well-known advocate of Sunday observance, 88. . . . Joseph Parry, a Utah pioneer, known as the "father of irrigation," 86.

August 8.—William Pierce Frye, for thirty years United States Senator from Maine, 79.

August 9.—Gen. George W. Gordon, commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans and Member of Congress from Tennessee, 75. . . . John W. Gates, the financier, 56. . . . Peter Robertson, the dramatic critic of San Francisco. . . . William A. Deering, advertising manager of the *New York Sun*, 53.

August 10.—Heinrich von Poschinger, the German political writer, 65.

August 11.—Alfred Bayard Nettleton, brevet brigadier-general at the close of the Civil War and founder of the *Minneapolis Tribune*, 73. . . . John Townshend, of New York, author of many legal works of reference, 91.

August 12.—Henry Clay Loudenslager, for ten terms Congressman from the First New Jersey District, 59. . . . Josef Israels, the Dutch painter, 87.

August 13.—Dr. Frank P. Foster, for thirty-one years editor of the *New York Medical Journal*, 69.

August 15.—Major Henry Reed Rathbone, who was with President Lincoln at the time of his assassination, 74. . . . Rev. Dr. William Curtis Styles, associate editor of the *Homiletic Review*, 60.

August 16.—Patrick Francis, Cardinal Moran, of New South Wales, 80. . . . Rt. Rev. John Wordsworth, Bishop of Salisbury (England), 67. . . . Dr. Paul Georges Dieulafoy, an eminent French physician, 72. . . . John H. Osborne, a pioneer in the harvesting-implement industry, 79.

August 17.—Mrs. Myrtle Reed McCullough, well known as a writer of fiction and compiler of cook books, under the pen names "Myrtle Reed" and "Olive Green," 37.

August 18.—Baron James of Hereford, a noted English lawyer and Unionist leader, 83. . . . Francis Collingwood, a prominent civil engineer of New York, 77.



CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



THE THREE GUARDSMEN. From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)

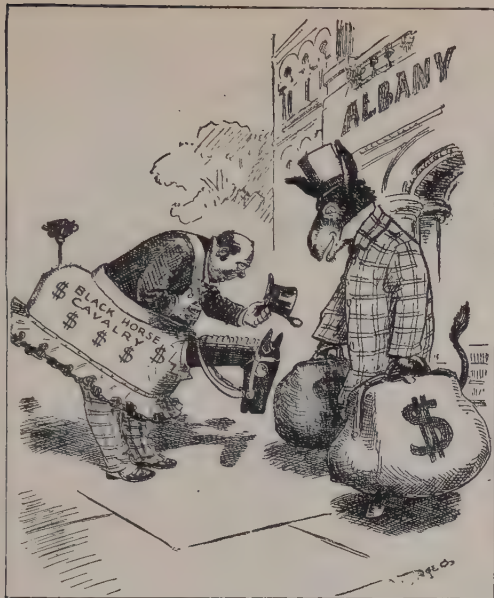
AMONG the recent achievements of our State Department are the arbitration treaties negotiated between our Government and those of England and France. The present situation in Morocco suggests to the cartoonist a timely pun on the word "peace."



SIGNS OF THE SEASON
From the *Daily News* (Chicago)



JOHN BULL (to Germany): "Hi say, don't hang around there very long; I can do all the watching necessary"
From the *American* (Baltimore)



THE REPUBLICAN BLACK HORSE CAVALRY MUST TAKE OFF ITS HAT TO THE DONKEY IN NEW YORK STATE
From the *Herald* (New York)

The above cartoon is intended as a commentary on the recent Democratic legislature in New York. The other cartoons on this page



UNCLE SAM GETTING ENOUGH OF IT
The Democratic party's fruitless investigations
From the *Tribune* (New York)



"PIGS IS PIGS"
From the *Post-Dispatch* (St. Louis)

refer to the breaking-up of the Standard Oil trust into its constituent companies, the Congressional investigations, and the Government's conservation of Alaska's natural resources.



NAILING IT DOWN
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



WILL THE TROJAN GIFT HORSE BE ADMITTED?

PRESIDENT TAFT (to Canada): "Isn't he a peach of a horse? And it's all for you, with Uncle Sam's love!"

From the *Star* (Montreal)

Now that the Reciprocity bill has been passed by Congress and approved by the President, it remains for Canada to accept or

reject the arrangement. There is a good deal of discussion of the measure pro and con in the present Canadian elections campaign, the opposition being well expressed by the Trojan horse cartoon reproduced above.



LEAVING SOMETHING ON CANADA'S DOORSTEP
From the *Herald* (Montreal)



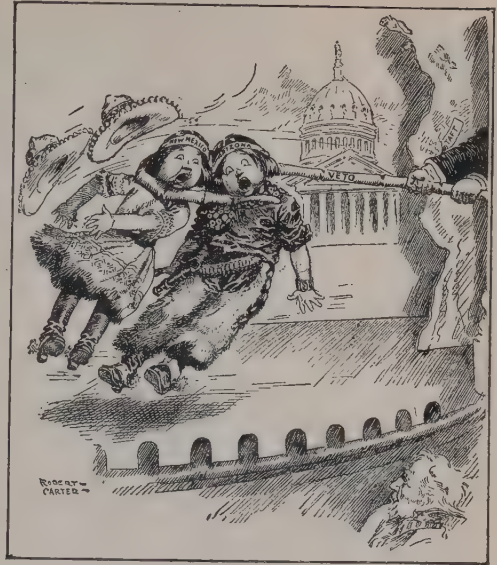
HURRY UP WITH THAT TONIC
From the *Herald* (Montreal)



BANZAI!

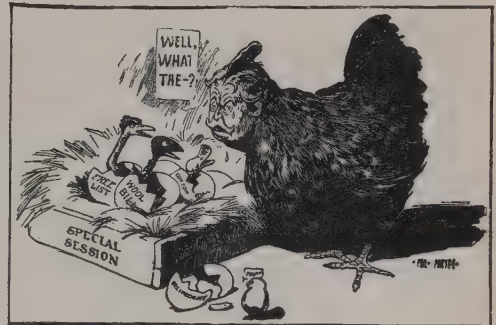
From the *World* (New York)

Admiral Togo was given a most cordial reception to our shores, and apparently enjoyed his visit to America. Owing to the judiciary-recall feature of Arizona's constitution the President vetoed the Statehood bill, which was later changed to omit the objectionable clause. Two other vetoes partly answered the question in the cartoon as to whether the hen would "mother" the Wool, Free List and Cotton bills.



"RECALLED"

From the *American* (New York)



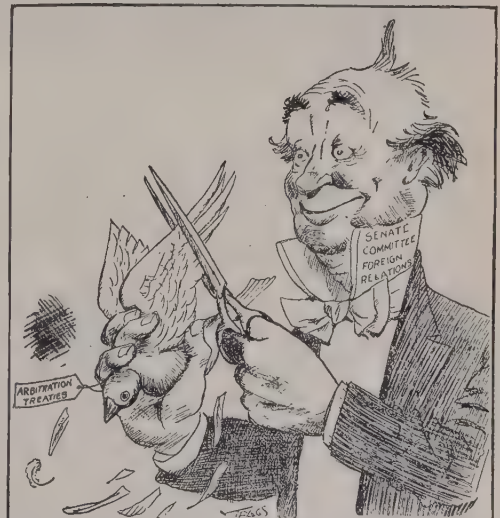
WILL SHE MOTHER 'EM?

From the *Traveler* (Boston)



REMEMBER PINCHOT, GLAVIS, ETC.

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



CLIPPING THE WINGS OF THE WHITE HOUSE DOVE

From the *Press* (New York)



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UNDERWOOD, OF ALABAMA, DEMOCRACY'S NEW CHIEFTAIN

BY ROBERT WICKLIFFE WOOLLEY

DESCENDANT of a proud race, Oscar W. Underwood is the intellectual superior of those of his forbears who have figured prominently in American history and is probably blessed with more of the genius of leadership than was any other chairman of the Ways and Means Committee since the Civil War. This may read like heresy to the admirers of William L. Wilson, William R. Morrison, Samuel J. Randall, Roger Q.

Mills, William McKinley, and Nelson Dingley, but if they will readjust their spectacles and analyze the facts they will be forced to admit there is justification for the statement.

Mr. Underwood is credited with being better informed on the tariff than any other living Democrat. This reputation is not entirely due to the fact that he is chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the lower House of Congress; rather has the

exalted office come to him as the result of years of study and practical experience in the making of tariff measures. It is doubtful if a more capable and highly trained expert—Democrat, Whig or Republican—ever attained to the position and certain it is that none before him has ever wielded so much power. For, be it known, the Ways and Means Committee is also the Committee on Committees in the Sixty-second Congress. Therefore, as chairman, he practically directed the appointments to all other committees—a right which vested in the Speaker of every Congress from the Second to the present one—and so wisely was the work done that those who hastened to censure are now glad to praise.

In the past few months, Mr. Underwood has taken the country by the ears with his vigorous replies to William Jennings Bryan. Twice has the Nebraskan attacked him and twice has this same Nebraskan come out second best; in the latter encounter, at least, was he called anything but a truthful person in as highly polished and categorical language as parliamentary usage would permit. In Underwood has Bryan found one man worthy of his steel, who, though he seeks not to be a foe, dodges no battle for fear of adverse political consequences.

One big thing about this astute statesman of the South is that he steers such an even course, pilots in such a masterly fashion, as to win the unqualified admiration even of his bitterest political opponents. Reactionary Republicans indulge on the floor of the House in a lot of high-sounding ridicule of his acts, but in the protected confines of the cloak room they tell an entirely different story. On one recent memorable occasion, when the Farmers Free List bill was under discussion, brilliant and stand-patting John Dalzell testified publicly to his regard for Mr. Underwood's courtesy and ability. Another big thing about Underwood is that he is seeing that the Democrats of the House make good their party's chief pledge—genuine downward revision of the tariff.

Have you ever seen this person of whom you heard comparatively little so late as a year ago, but who has quickly become the second most powerful man in the land, President Taft being first? If you have, you have beheld a clean-cut, well-groomed, soberly attired, scholarly looking gentleman. I will pass rapidly over that correctly-trimmed hair, carefully parted in the middle and plastered tight to the cranium; that clean-shaven face with the smile which has

never worn off; that freshly pressed suit and those glistening boots. Much has been written concerning them. It is only worth while to say they are not in the least due to affectation. This neatness simply bespeaks the well-bred, orderly man. And above all things is Underwood orderly. It has been said of him that he started life with a card index system for his marbles, his horse-shoe nails and his jack-knives. Under many a chairman was there chaos in the offices of the Ways and Means Committee, but to-day these resemble the suite of a Wall Street banker.

The onlooker's first impression is not that Oscar Underwood is a great man, though he measures well as he stands erect, looking every inch a six-footer, points the index finger of his right hand sharply at the chair and draws out, with a charming southern inflection:

"M-i-s-t-e-r Spe-a-ker!"

Rather has he an irresistible way of gradually growing on one. To the casual visitor to the House galleries he is not always a pleasing orator. Though he possesses to a marked degree the power of direct statement and never indulges in buncombe, meant for digestion by the gullible "back home," he leans heavily toward the deadly serious—as possibly a lifelong student of the tariff should. He enjoys a good story, but never tells one; he is the despair of habitual jokesmiths at the capital. To his associates Underwood appears at his best in the committee room. There they know him as a mine of carefully-assorted, well-digested, and correctly-tagged information, as the soul of intellectual integrity and the personification of common sense. On the floor he is at his best in the thick of a rapid-fire debate or when straightening out a parliamentary tangle. His knowledge of the rules and of precedents governing their interpretation surpasses even that of Speaker Clark; his only peers in this respect on the Democratic side are John J. Fitzgerald, of New York, and Swager Sherley, of Kentucky.

Oscar Underwood is an Alabamian only by adoption. He was born at Louisville in 1862, the son of a lawyer and grandson of Joseph R. Underwood, who emigrated to Kentucky from Virginia in 1800 and in due time became a Representative and Senator in Congress. He attended the Rugby School at Louisville and later graduated in law from the University of Virginia. It is interesting to note that Sherley, nine years younger than Underwood, was also born at Louisville and attended the University of Virginia; that

Speaker Champ Clark was born and grew to manhood in Anderson County, Kentucky, just sixty miles distant; that Augustus O. Stanley, chairman of the House committee which is investigating the United States Steel Corporation, was born and reared at Shelbyville, Kentucky, forty miles from Louisville; that Ben Johnson, chairman of the important District of Columbia Committee, was born and still resides at Bardstown, also about forty miles distant; and that Ollie James, one of the real rulers of the House, is a product and the representative of the Western; or "Purchase," end of Kentucky.

Underwood removed in 1884 to Birmingham, when that town boasted scant 5000 inhabitants, and hung out his shingle. From the start he took a deep and abiding interest in politics; the result was that ten years later he was elected to Congress. There he has been ever since, quietly but surely developing into one of the big public men of his time.

Which one of Mr. Underwood's illustrious predecessors ever had to deal with such a wild, apparently untamable lot of patriots; had to rehabilitate his party before the people with the aid of a band of legislators whose chief characteristics seemed to be differences of opinion and pronounced mediocrity? Did you ever consider that of those Democrats now members of the House who served in the Sixty-first and previous Congresses, not more than ten had ever shown themselves when Underwood took hold, to be worth more than their salt to the country at large? Think it over. See if you do not, regardless of your political beliefs, conclude that the man's accomplishments to date are fairly remarkable.

Some ordinary mortals may be filled with humility, but none of this species ever breaks into Congress. Good opinion of Number One is the rule there—and the smaller the justification, the greater the opinion. That is what made it hard for Underwood and his associates on the Committee on Committees so to organize the House as to get the best results. Of course, a big majority of the ranking Democratic members of the standing committees of the last House were from the South. For sixteen years that had been about the only section of the country in which a Democrat was reasonably sure of succeeding himself, or any one else. The North, naturally, was placed on the defensive. A number of these men possessed real ability; others were mere time-servers

whose greatest achievements had been getting speeches which never were delivered published in the *Congressional Record*, asking irrelevant questions in debate in order to give their constituents the impression that they were attending to business, and flooding their districts with free seeds and farmers' bulletins.

Pressure came from all sides to ignore seniority and to select the chairmen solely because of their ability and fitness. That seemed the only right thing to do. But the consideration of prime importance was harmony. By following the rule of seniority there was a chance to achieve it; Underwood, also Speaker Clark, saw that any other course would lead to turmoil. So the seniority rule was pretty closely observed, though it was stretched a bit to give the Northern States sixteen chairmanships.

This arrangement made the work of the leader much harder than if merit alone had been considered in making up the committees. He is frequently bothered with details which his deputy leaders should attend to. But so far Underwood has handled the job as a master should, and even those who would like best to see him fail believe he will continue to succeed conspicuously.

Now, the captious have said that because the Democrats have such a substantial majority it is extravagant to give the floor leader more than passing credit for the efficiently prepared and promptly passed Farmers Free List bill, the Wool bill, the Cotton Schedule bill; for the handsome support rendered President Taft in his effort to establish reciprocity between the United States and Canada, and for other things which the House has done so well at the extraordinary session. Fulsome praise, of course, is unnecessary and often works injustice to the person upon whom it is lavished. But the truth can do no harm in this case, at least. In the Sixty-first Congress, the Democrats and Insurgent Republicans succeeded in curtailing the power of the Speaker to a certain extent and so aroused the country at large that Mr. Cannon and the rules which bore his name were a big issue in the last campaign. Not until the eleventh hour after election did Champ Clark, the only person seriously spoken of as "Uncle Joe's" successor, formally commit himself to the proposition to take the appointing power away from the Speaker and entrust it to a Committee on Committees. Once he did so, he washed his hands of the details and the responsibility. As a consequence, he is

literally the moderator that the rebellious of recent days intended he should be. His power is still greater than that of the Vice President, but it is second to the power of the floor leader of the majority—a condition which never before existed.

Knowledge of this fact and of the real attitude of Mr. Clark causes the adherents and other admirers of Underwood to smile when they read in certain newspapers and magazines that all credit is due the Speaker for the harmony which is so noticeable on the Democratic side of the House to-day. Right here let me emphasize the fact that there is no friction between Clark and Underwood. They understand each other perfectly and each is in full accord with what the other does. Of course, this concord may not last forever. It surely will not if certain of their respective ardent henchmen succeed in what seems to be a robust effort to create a breach between them. Those who would detract from the Speaker's glory say he took a seat on the fence the day he was nominated by the Democratic caucus—because he is a candidate for the Presidency and doesn't wish to hurt any one's feelings; Underwood's critics say he, too, is flirting with Presidential lightning and that he has been assuming more responsibility than the situation has warranted. And there you are!

Clark and Underwood work together as perfectly as a pair of prize coach horses. How they did arouse the ire of "Uncle Joe" Cannon and Minority Leader Mann on May 8 last, the day the Farmers' Free List was passed by the House! By way of protest, the Republicans submitted amendment after amendment—about one hundred in all—and each was promptly declared out of order, under the new rule which prevents the offering of amendments to a revenue measure not germane to the subject matter of that measure.

"Great heavens!" cried out Mr. Cannon, glaring at Underwood—he was never so happy in his day of power as when giving the same kind of performance—"Upon what meat has this our Cæsar fed that he should grow so great? Is the creature greater than the creator?"

Because Oscar Underwood is intensely practical and never attempts to legislate with the aid of a brass band or scare-head lines, he has frequently been accused by the radicals in both parties of being at heart a protectionist. This charge was reiterated when the House Wool bill was in course of

preparation some weeks ago. A great majority of the Democrats in the House and in the country at large were undoubtedly in favor of placing wool and woollen goods on the Free List. But Underwood saw that to offer to the Senate and eventually to the President a measure which would shut off a big source of revenue and provide no other in its place would be bad politics and worse business. Bryan threatened him with excommunication from the Democratic party, but Underwood called a caucus—and the Wool bill, providing only for marked reductions in the duties, was passed.

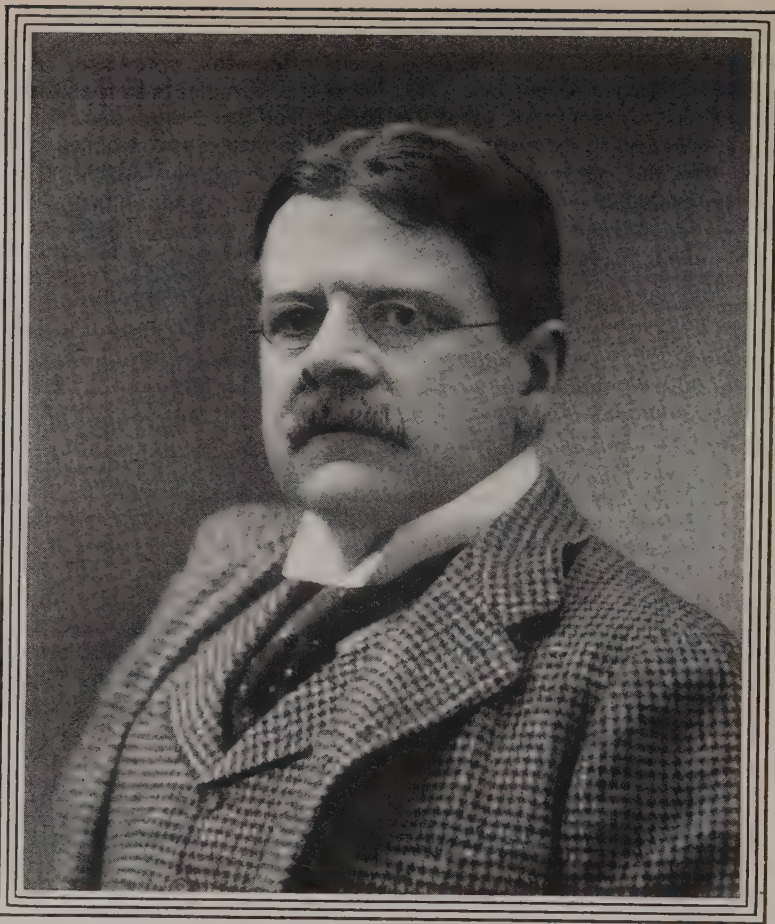
In connection with Mr. Bryan's latest charge that Mr. Underwood, who owns a substantial interest in a big iron concern at Birmingham, has been opposing a revision of the iron and steel schedule, and Mr. Underwood's spirited reply, supported by Representative Claude Kitchin, an ardent Bryanite, that he had asked the Ways and Means Committee to take up this schedule first of all, it is interesting to note the Alabamian's answer two years ago to the Birmingham Commercial Club's protest against reduction of the duty on pig iron below \$4 a ton in the Payne-Aldrich bill.

"I have never been in favor of a protective tariff for protection's sake," he wired. "I have always believed in a tariff for revenue only. I think \$4 a ton on pig iron is prohibitive and that it ought to be reduced."

Whereupon he voted for a duty of \$2.50 per ton and was reelected to Congress without opposition.

Oscar Underwood's name will undoubtedly be presented to the next Democratic National Convention. Alabama and possibly other Southern States will probably give him a handsome complimentary vote for the Presidential nomination; it is not altogether improbable that second place on the ticket will go to him. There are many who believe he will some day be the first Democratic President elected from Dixie since James K. Polk was chosen in 1844.

Mr. Underwood is proud of the social achievements of his wife, and is greatly interested in the future of his two sons—his only children—one of whom is just starting in the iron and steel business at Birmingham and the other of whom is a law student at the University of Virginia. But first of all he is a home man. He is happy in his library, is of abstemious habits and has many years of usefulness before him. An earnest apostle of Jefferson, he is a constructive statesman.



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EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY

EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY, AMERICA'S GREATEST ILLUSTRATOR

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY, who died in England on August 1, was America's greatest illustrator, and ranked high among the great illustrators of the world, while as a decorative painter he had won British and American commendation.

Abbey was born in Philadelphia in 1852. He early showed talent for drawing. Report has it that when he was only fourteen he drew a rebus that was published in "Oliver Optic's Boys and Girls," and that "the artist used to say in later years that not even the commission to paint the coronation of King Edward had pleased him so much as the appearance of his first artistic attempt in public print."

He worked in a wood engraving shop in his native city, and attended classes at the Academy of Fine Arts in the evening. It is also reported that before he was twenty a sketch called "The First Thanksgiving" was accepted by the Harpers. At any rate 1871 finds him in New York drawing regularly for Harper's publications, doing all kinds of hack work, drawing from photographs on boxwood for the engraver to cut (photographing upon the block was not then in vogue), making comic cuts for "The Editor's Drawer," illustrating stories and articles.

In all this work he showed the ability to enter into the spirit of his text, and to charge his drawings with color, picturesque-

ness and detail, lifting them above the other illustrations in the periodicals of the times, which were flat and unprofitable. (Though in isolated cases, as in the work of La Farge, Vedder, and Winslow Homer, some spirited designs had already appeared.)

AT TWENTY-TWO HE STRIKES THE KEYNOTE OF HIS STYLE

In May, 1874, *Harper's Magazine* republished a 17th Century poem, "Corinne's Going A-Maying," by Robert Herrick, with four illustrations. Three were crude in design, but the first one, of a lover standing below his lady's window, had a striking color quality that made it stand out amid the dull "woodcuts" in the rest of the magazine; it was signed Abbey. It was a wonderful drawing for a youth of twenty-two, and though he later on improved the correctness of his drawing, yet in this early example he struck the keynote of his life's work; his style never changed.

HIS BEST ILLUSTRATIONS

From then on Abbey, by leaps and bounds, reached, and held his own, in the front rank of American illustrators. His Colonial and Elizabethan subjects were unique in vividness and picturesqueness.

In 1878 he was sent by the Harpers to England to gather material for illustrations to Robert Herrick's poems. Abbey executed some of his best illustrations between the years 1878 and 1880.

There is a remarkable sureness of drawing, yet it is stately and spontaneous in effect, and a rare feeling for color, and an absence of mannerism, in the work of this period.

The date of publication in book form of some of his commissions of this time are,—

1882, "Selections from the Hesperides" and "Notable Numbers," by Robert Herrick,"—1887, "She Stoops to Conquer," by Goldsmith,—1889, "Old Songs." "The Quiet Life," a collection of verses by Marvell, Pope, Cowley and Austin Dobson (the landscape illustrations being by Alfred Parsons), was published in 1890, but many of the drawings were made much earlier.

"The Comedies of Shakespeare," 1895, show us the work of a draughtsman still more sure of his technique, but at times he is more "mannered" than in his early work, and the characters are not always quite as refined as one would wish, but these are by all odds the most artistic illustrations to Shakespeare that have ever appeared. In Goldsmith's "Deserted Village," 1896, the grouping is very charming, and the English landscape most accurately and fully noted.

A MASTER OF DETAIL

Rendering of detail was perhaps his greatest forte. This was what delighted us in Abbey's illustrations in the eighties. When other artists illustrated colonial or English stories, they had been content to introduce, as accessories, any chairs, any cupboards, any pictures on the walls. But here was a young draughtsman who had



Copyright by Harper & Brothers, New York
ILLUSTRATION TO "A LOVE SONG," BY GEORGE WITHER,
IN "HARPER'S MAGAZINE," OCTOBER, 1887. PEN]
DRAWING BY EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY

(When drawings of this kind, rich in color, and full of vivacity, began to appear in our magazines, it was recognized that an American illustrator of superlative talent had arrived—and Abbey's name soon became synonymous with great illustrating. His Puritan and Elizabethan costumes seem to fit his models—he never drew a puppet-clad figure)

gone to the trouble to draw a Windsor chair with all its proper turnings, a Georgian high-boy with all its severity of outline, its simplicity of brass mountings! A picture on the wall was truly an 18th Century sporting print in a mahogany frame! And in the fireplace how accurately drawn are those huge firedogs, and the spit, and low tripod kettle! And how the light and shade played around the forms of these objects! Here was a conscientious artist indeed.



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"THE SPIRIT OF VULCAN"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

HIS DECORATIVE INSTINCT

Abbey always possessed the decorative instinct. We see it in his early vignetted illustrations, and compositions in rectangles half the size of the page, the rest of it taken up by flying leaves or birds, or by quaint old English lettering. And when he occupied a quaint little building in West 10th Street, the "Tile Club" met in his studio and the members decorated tiles for one another. Perhaps these were never set into a wall, thus leading toward mural decoration, as the tiles William Morris designed led him to interior decoration, but they may have engendered in Abbey's mind a desire to decorate. At any rate about 1889 we find him painting a large panel for the Hotel Imperial New York, "Playing Bowls in New Amsterdam"—a glimpse of the old bowling green at the Battery, a "Half Moon"-like ship anchored in the harbor—a windmill, five tiny, much begabed, brick houses, and in the foreground a party of our Dutch ancestors in their voluminous trousers, playing at bowls.

THE "HOLY GRAIL" SERIES

It was not till some years later, however, that he took up the decorative series by which he is best known—The "Holy Grail" panels in the Boston Public Library, familiar to many tourists who have seen them there, and to thousands of school children who have

become familiar with them through the "Copley Print" reproductions.

These were begun in 1891. They consist of panels portraying the legend of "The Holy Grail," an ideal subject for a library decoration. From a critical standpoint they are not good decorations, but are, rather, puzzle pictures that the public loves to stand before and unravel with the help of a guide book, fascinated by the episodic themes, and the mediæval details of costume. On the other hand, the general public have greatly approved of these pictures; the scholarship back of their planning should be recognized.

HIS "CORONATION OF EDWARD VII"

Abbey was commissioned to paint "The Coronation of Edward VII in Westminster Abbey," in 1902. The painting 15 feet long by 6 feet high hangs in Windsor Castle. (By a remarkable coincidence the companion picture, the Coronation of Queen Victoria, was painted also by a Philadelphian, Charles R. Leslie!) This picture increased Abbey's fame in England—he had been made a member of the Royal Academy in 1898—so that he was ranked among the leading painters of the day.

Abbey's canvasses are entirely lacking in charm of technique. Their attributes, that captivate, are the richness of their coloring, and the voluptuousness of their detail.

The characterization of types is not always



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"THE SPIRIT OF LIGHT"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

convincing, but it is above the commonplace. We are certain that the artist conceived a definite idea of his type, that it is out of the ordinary, and worthy of our attention. Even more personal is his costuming of these characters, and the scenery that surrounds them. Take the mammoth headdress and trailing veil of Lady Anne, in "Richard, Duke of Gloucester and the Lady Anne" (shown at the Royal Academy, 1896), the very conception throughout is Abbey's, not another artist in the world ever would have thought out this striking paraphernalia.

PENNSYLVANIA CAPITOL DECORATIONS

The last decorations Abbey undertook which he left unfinished at his death were those for the State Capitol at Harrisburg. It was quite proper that he as a son of a Pennsylvanian should have received this commission.

A number of orders for decorations of the building were given early in the eighties to Abbey, Alexander and others, but when the graft exposé came in 1905 these orders were rescinded, and it looked for a time as though the Capitol was to go without mural adornment, but later the authorities had the good sense to realize that this would be an irreparable loss to the State, and matters were finally adjusted so that in 1907 the Abbey decorations were recontracted for at a sum, it is said, of \$212,000.

The plan for these decorations (as best we can gather from available data at the present writing) was for nine panels, to be distributed in the Supreme Court Chamber, the Hall of the House and the Senate Chamber.

The subject matter of the pictures was recently described by "I. N. F." in the New York *Tribune*, from which we learn that the paintings are now in Abbey's big studio at Shepard's Bush, England. When in place, the Speaker's desk will be flanked by two panels commemorating "Penn's Treaty with the Indians," and "The Signing of the Declaration"; the circular ceiling will show the "Flight of the Hours."

Another canvas symbolizes the "Apotheosis of Pennsylvania"; in it "two gray columns with gilded capitals carry the spectator's eye toward the sumptuous temple, where the 'Genius of State' is enthroned behind laurel under the majestic dome of blue and white sky. Around the temple are grouped the worthies who have helped to shape the destinies of the Commonwealth and to crown it with honor"—Sir Walter Raleigh, the organizer of Colonial settlements; Hudson, who sighted Delaware Bay; Peter Minuit, who left the Swedish flag at the headwaters of the Chesapeake; types like the Scotch-Irish scout represent the Westward making pioneer, and "a group of dark fantastic figures like 'the Woman of the Wilderness' represent the religious refugees from many lands."



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"SCIENCE REVEALING THE TREASURES OF THE EARTH"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

"The allegory passes in the second line to soldiers of the Revolution, signers of the Declaration and men of action, philosophy and science." Here are Anthony Wayne, John Dickinson, Thomas MacKean, Bishop White, Muhlenberg, Dallas, Caspar Wistar, John Fitch, Oliver Evans, David Rittenhouse, Benjamin Rush, Stephen Girard, Tom Paine; in a central group are, William Penn, Benjamin Franklin, and Robert Morris.

"In the foreground on the right are groups of miners and iron and steel workers, in a ruddy glow of furnace fires, and in the opposite quarter there are soldiers and sailors in blue, with drummer boys in the first file, and Generals Meade and Hancock mounted behind them, with grim Thaddeus Stevens and energetic Governor Curtin looking on, and with the blue State flag behind them with the Stars and Stripes."

In "Penn's Treaty with the Indians" is a wealth of golden tone in the great tree with its autumnal tints.

The circular ceiling, twenty-four feet in diameter, is a "medieval chart, toned from light to dark blues, of the zone of starry heavens, within which lie the paths of the sun, moon and planets. . . . Circling around this field of blue and gold are the four and twenty hours in joyous or somber flight, . . . revealing roseate flesh tints through gauzy draperies of pale blue, or shivering in black

robes with averted faces where the shadows of night are deepening."

The illustrations we publish of three other decorations of the Pennsylvania State House indicate that Abbey has improved upon his Holy Grail pictures. There seems to be nowhere that unhappy combination of flat Byzantine patterns with realistic rendering—a fatal mistake,—all seems logically realistic in rendering. The symbolism is skilfully united with the anecdotal. In the "Spirit of Vulcan," where the nude backs of the workmen recall Velasquez's "Forge of Vulcan," there is the same preponderance of realism that there is in that famous Spanish masterpiece.

"The Spirit of Light" with its nude figures shows a decided departure for Abbey; but the forceful forward movement of the figures, and the significant oil wells, their interlacing silhouettes making distinct patterns in the background, are characteristic of his happy faculty for composition.

Less characteristic, perhaps, is "Science Revealing the Treasures of the Earth"; the allegory is less striking, and the many upright lines are hardly happy, maybe in color they are less pronounced.

A fourth lunette is entitled "The Spirit of Religious Liberty"—three allegorical female figures flying before a fleet of old-time ships.



THE BROTHERS MANNESMANN, OWNERS OF "IMPORTANT GERMAN INTERESTS" IN MOROCCO

(The German firm that was mainly concerned in the Agadir incident is that of the well-known Gebrüder Mannesmann, steel and iron manufacturers, of Remscheid, in Westphalia, a remarkable combination of brothers, each of whom is an expert in some special branch of the business. The five brothers are types of the German business men whose energy and pushfulness have done so much to develop their country as a world power. One of the brothers, Reinhard, is an expert in mines, and it was he who obtained from the Sultan Abdul Aziz of Morocco the mining concessions which formed the chief basis of Germany's claim to protect her interests in Morocco)

FRENCHMAN AND GERMAN IN AFRICA

BY EDGAR ALLEN FORBES

(Author of "The Land of the White Helmet")

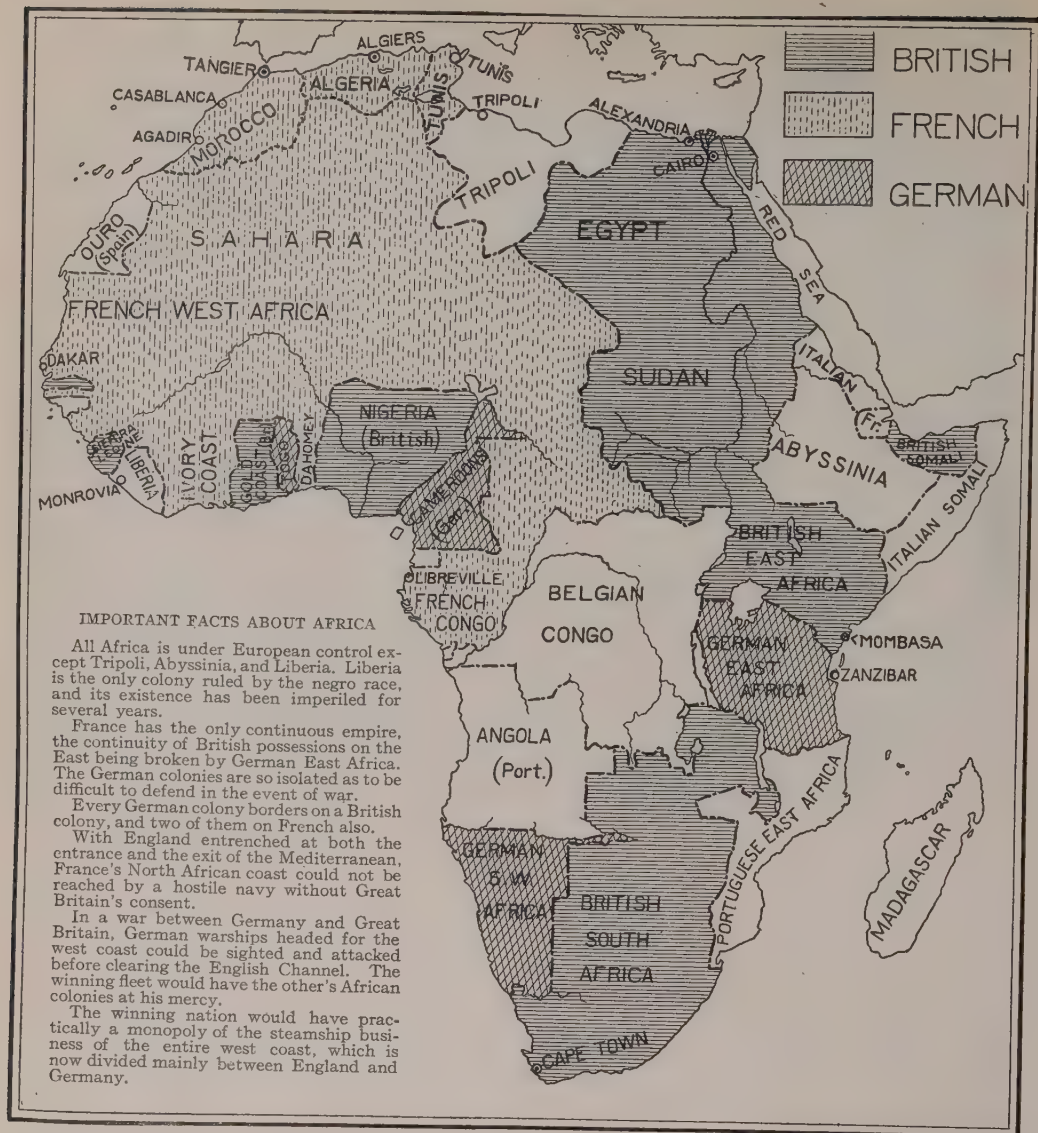
I. FRANCE AND HER AFRICAN DOMINIONS

NEARLY everything in Africa is to-day dominated by three great overlords—England, France and Germany. Great Britain and France together control about two-thirds of the continent, the British third being by far the more important. Germany owns only a small part of the remaining third, but its steamship and trading interests entitle it to a voice in all African councils.

Very few Americans realize the vastness of the French empire in the Dark Continent—

mainly for the reason that Americans read English and the English do not use much ink in the glorification of French colonization. Here are some geographical facts that will give an imperfect conception of the area covered by the Tricolor in Africa.

The traveler who starts southward from Algiers and travels in a straight line until he reaches the limit of French territory will cover a distance equal to that between New York City and Santa Fé, New Mexico. If



he should start from Dakar, on the west coast, and go eastward until he reach the Anglo-French boundary, he would go as far as from Pittsburgh to San Francisco. Diagonally from Tangier to the southeastern corner of the French domain, the distance is equal to that from New York City to Portland, Oregon.

Divide this great composite area up into its component parts and fit them into a map of the United States and we have something like this: Tunis covers North Carolina. Algeria blots out the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Kentucky. Morocco is as large as Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia and Florida combined. French West Africa includes enough

real estate to make twenty-five States like Kentucky. French Guinea is as big as Oregon and the Ivory Coast colony is twice the size of Michigan. Into the small colony of Dahomey could be placed six New Hampshires. The French Congo covers the big State of Illinois eight times. And we have left the Great Desert and its nomad peoples; the Sahara alone is nearly as large as the whole of the United States. If we count in the little French colony isolated on the Red Sea and add the French island of Madagascar, we have something like 38,000,000 Africans who are citizens or subjects of France. About 30,000,000 of these are Mohammedans.

A glance at the map will show one of the most significant facts about this domain—that it is practically all in one piece. It is the only continuous empire in Africa and it fronts on the sea everywhere except on the east.

Of course, this general description considers Morocco as an integral part of France's African possessions. Nominally the Moorish Empire is independent, and the nations of Europe have in solemn conclave declared that its sovereignty shall be maintained. At the same time, everybody concerned knows that Morocco is French just as certainly as the Turkish khedivate of Egypt is British. France wants Morocco to round out its empire. Great Britain has made an agreement whereby France is to have it. Germany is the one disturbing factor, but Germany has openly announced her willingness to get out of the way if France will pay for the withdrawal. The Spanish claims (including part possession) are weak—because they are not backed up by big guns. Morocco itself is not supposed to have anything to say on the subject. As for the rest of the world, if may rest assured that no better fortune can come to Morocco than to find itself speedily taken

over by France. As an independent nation it is utterly hopeless and can only go from very bad to worse. Since its population is fanatically Mohammedan, Morocco may well bow its face toward Mecca and petition Allah that it may be given over to a considerate nation like France, that has shown a wonderful capacity for fitting European government about the necks of Moslems.

The writer has been in nearly all of the French African colonies and makes no concealment of his admiration for the colonial administrations that he has witnessed. He went as an inconspicuous American, with no advance notices and under no obligations to any French official for courtesies. After wandering around for a year in many African colonies he came away with the firm conviction that the Frenchman is the most enthusiastic, the most discreet, and the kindest of the African overlords—and withal the finest "builder" in the Dark Continent. And he is not alone in this conviction.

Take the material side first, since the world insists upon gauging the progress of civilization by counting up expenditures for public works. No other nation has so many fine harbors in Africa. You expect these along



THE HARBOR OF ORAN, ALGERIA, ILLUSTRATING THE FRENCH HABIT OF PROVIDING A SAFE ANCHOR FOR VESSELS AND AMPLE DOCKING FACILITIES



"ALL ABOARD FOR CARTHAGE!"

(The electric train that runs from Tunis to the ancient site of Carthage. The train is standing in front of the Carthage station)

French way—to provide excellent landing facilities and safe anchorages. They do not surpass the British in providing for steamship service between colony and homeland, but the Briton builds not harbors after this fashion.

Take railroads. The writer found trains to carry him all over French North Africa, with two branch lines that actually run down into the Sahara Desert—and a telegraph line that goes all the way across that burning inland sea of sand. At Dakar he found a railroad

running up to the mouth of the Senegal River, where the steamer makes connection and carries freight and passengers to the head of navigation on the Senegal. There another railroad picks them up and carries them across to navigable water on the upper Niger and turns them over to steamers that run to Timbuctu. And at Casablanca, in the land of no railroads, the first thing that he clambered over when he stepped from the surf-boat was an embankment with steel rails on top—the beginning of a French military railroad. Massive bridges, macadamized highways, telephones, fine public buildings, electric railways—you meet them



A STREET SCENE IN RUFISQUE, FRENCH WEST AFRICA

(The narrow-gaged tracks run from the dock to all of the principal stores and warehouses; cargo unloaded from a vessel is quickly transferred to its destination)



THE "WHITE CITY" OF ALGIERS

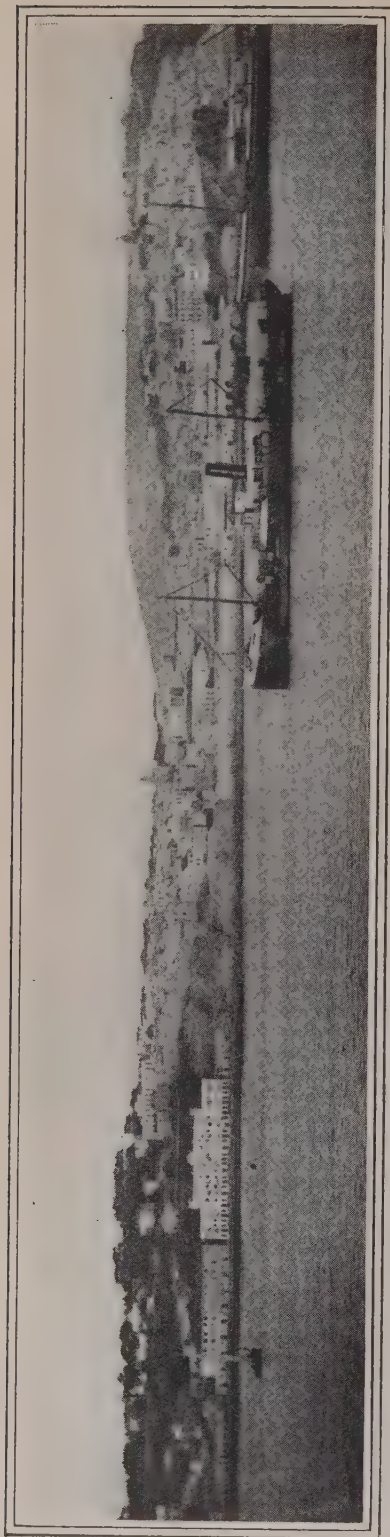
(This view from an incoming steamer is more attractive than that from Kasbah on the hilltop)

nearly everywhere you travel about in France's African empire. fatal droughts by the French well-diggers.

Even in the upper edge of the Sahara he observed the same restless, enthusiastic activity. Caravan routes were being marked out and mapped, with every well in the entire Sahara carefully located and deepened, making chains of stepping-stones across the blistering zone. One by one the existing oases are being watered by artesian well, and their area of productivity extended. The marauding Tuaregs on the south and the roving bandits along the Moroccan border are being chased away millions of date-palms are being saved from



A BOULEVARD IN THE ALGERIAN CITY OF ORAN, NEAR THE MOROCCAN BORDER



TANGIER, MOROCCO, WHICH IS NOTHING LIKE SO MODERN AS A DISTANT VIEW INDICATES

(Tangier, which was, for centuries, the only Moroccan town known to Europe, is the chief commercial center of the country and its diplomatic headquarters. It has a population of about 35,000, a large portion of whom are engaged in making the celebrated Morocco leather)

from their ancient lairs by Arab cavalymen in French uniform. It is really a spectacle that makes one feel that the genius of the Frenchman has been only imperfectly understood by the world.

Personally, the writer looks for schools when he goes a-hunting for civilization—not institutions of higher learning, but plain schools for everybody. If there be a nation in Africa that has gone into the school-teacher business so extensively as the French, let somebody else name it. In Tunis, for example, which is one of the younger French colonies, he found so many schools that he could not even classify them,—schools for French, for Italians, for Jews, for Arabs; schools for Arabs to learn French and others for French to learn Arabic; agricultural schools, theological schools, normal schools to train native teachers. And what France has done for the Arab she is doing on a different scale for the black-skinned protégés of the west coast and of the vast interior. Here is a nation that believes in civilization through the schoolhouse and that does not wait for the missionaries to educate her subjects.

A policy of conciliation marks the French official in all parts of this African empire. During all the time that the writer was in Africa he never saw a Frenchman in uniform act or speak arrogantly toward a native. The Arab and the French negro seemed to be on an equal footing with the white man so far as public institutions and conveniences were concerned. The religion of the Mohammedan received a hard blow when the Frenchman came, of course, but he quickly learned that the invader would not tread roughly upon his prejudices. The privacy of his mosques was safeguarded; the tombs of his holy men were whitewashed, instead of being desecrated; his priests, by whatever name called, were utilized as local magistrates and allowed to administer justice in the old way, except in the case of grave misdemeanors. The Arab soon discovered that he could even put on the white man's uniform without racial or religious dishonor—and nearly all of French Africa is to-day guarded by brown and black-skinned men with French officers. The very fact that France entrusts her empire to the arms of the conquered races is very strong evidence that she has learned how to administer government in a land of strange prejudices.

The story of Morocco will be the same as the story of other French possessions. France gets her colonies by methods that most of us must unqualifiedly condemn, just as we

must condemn the means whereby the majority of the British colonies were acquired. Then comes the inconsistency. Having acquired a colony by fair means or foul, France immediately sets to work to administer it in such a way that the suspicion and the dislike of its natives are quickly and permanently removed. The Frenchman expects to make his colonies pay, but he does not expect them to pay in the beginning. Instead of raising moneys for vast railroad and harbor projects by squeezing the colonies, the money is raised in France and the projects quickly executed. He has confidence in the future and therefore builds immeasurably faster than a nation that takes no chances on what to-morrow may bring forth.

Enthusiasm and optimism, therefore, are the distinguishing characteristics of the Frenchman as the writer of these lines observed him in Africa. The average official is of fine fiber and executive ability—but that is true of most of the white men in that blistering land. No other type of man can “swing the job.”



THE CAMEL IN HARNESS

(An idea that the Arab never obtained from the Koran, but which he is seeing worked out successfully in an increasing number of sections of North Africa by the French)



ALGERIAN LAWYER

TUNISIAN EDITOR

SENEGAL MERCHANT AND MOHAMMEDAN GENTLEMAN

FOUR TYPES OF FRENCH AFRICANS

II. GERMANY—THE THIRD POWER IN AFRICA

THREE times within the last six years we have been thrown into the fever of a war-scare over Morocco. That wretched corner of the hot continent is like an exposed nerve or an inflamed tonsil in its capacity for producing systematic disturbances out of all proportion to the amount of area involved. In each case it has been the German who pounded on the war-drum.

Up to the year 1904 the European executors of Africa would have smiled to hear any one seriously mention Germany as an African power. In that year, for instance, England and France sat down together and executed a "Know All Men By These Presents" to the effect that henceforth Egypt should be a British "sphere of influence" and in return for the aloofness of France along the Nile, Morocco should be a French "sphere of influence." It was quite natural that the Khedive of Egypt and the Sultan of Morocco should have been overlooked in the transaction, but the two nations made a fatal mistake in neglecting to invite to their conference a highly respected member of the Hohenzollern family. Morocco was encouraged to make a written appeal to Germany for help and the Kaiser himself came over to Tangier. The result was the Algeciras Conference guaranteeing Moroccan sovereignty. Germany had blocked the game—and a nation that can do that is an African power.

In 1908 came the second incident. In the French army at Casablanca was the Foreign Legion, a detachment of gentlemen-adventurers—and adventurers who are not gentle-

men—from all the countries of Europe. Three Germans deserted the colors and took refuge in the German consulate. Their officers promptly arrested them and returned them to camp. Immediately the war-drum was heard all along the Rhine and for months there was serious danger of war. It was finally averted by certain trade concessions which France made to Germany.

And now has come the third incident. A German war-boat anchors at the southwest corner of Morocco and offers to leave provided France will cede to Germany 350 miles of coast just north of the mouth of the Congo, and along with it the port of Libreville, which is France's exit to the sea in that part of Africa.

With these three incidents fresh in mind, surely there is no fledgling diplomat in Europe who will again make the mistake of ignoring Germany as an African Power with a big P.

And yet Germany owns but a very small part of Africa, in comparison with the vast estates of Great Britain and France. The Kaiser has three isolated colonies on the west coast and one on the east coast—none of which is of great intrinsic value and only one has exceptional strategic value. Hamburg traders have been on the Guinea coast for centuries and German explorers have gone nearly all over the continent, yet it was not until 1883 that their flag went up over the first German colony in Africa. Previous to that time the biggest German known to the African was the red-faced captain of some rusty cargo-boat. It is quite otherwise now.



THE BIGGEST GERMAN CALLING IN AFRICA

(A Hamburg cargo boat loaded down with merchandise destined to points from Dakar to German Southwest Africa)

No student who follows the white man step by step in his exploration and conquest of the Dark Continent can fail to be impressed with one remarkable fact—that the German has the clearest title and the cleanest hands of all the overlords of Africa. His invasion has been marked by the most astute diplomacy but his bitterest foe can hardly claim that he has not played the game fairly. It is also an interesting fact that it is the Englishman (who most of all regrets the German's presence in Africa) who is responsible for encouraging him to enter into the scramble. The story of all four colonies can be outlined in a few brief sentences.

(1) In 1880 an appeal for protection against hostile natives came from some German missionaries who had been established for twenty years in an unmapped region in southwest Africa, within the British "sphere of influence." The British Government, speaking with the voice of Lord Beaconsfield and later of Mr. Gladstone, declined to intervene on the ground that the missionaries were not within the limits of British territory. A long diplomatic correspondence resulted in the German flag being raised over what is to-day known as German Southwest Africa. Then a British warship was sent to protest, but it was too late. The correspondence gave the Germans a clear title.



A GERMAN CARGO BOAT UNLOADING A RAILROAD AT DAKAR, FRENCH WEST AFRICA

(This is by far the finest harbor on the entire west coast of Africa, for Sierra Leone has the only natural harbor between Tangier and Cape Town)

(2) In the very center of the Guinea Coast, between French Dahomey and the British colony called Gold Coast, is the tiny German colony of Togoland. The Germans had some claims on this that dated back to the pioneer trading days, but the protectorate was really established by virtue of treaties which the explorer Nachtigal made with the native chiefs. It is true that Nachtigal did not make it perfectly clear to the British Government what he was about to do, but it would be stretching the facts to call his action underhanded.

(3) It is to the intrepid Nachtigal also that Germany owes the far more important colony of the Cameroons. The British Government had been duly notified that the explorer was active in that region but His

Majesty's consul allowed himself to be caught asleep. The old Cameroons chief whose signature to the treaty made his country a German colony was himself something of a diplomat. Knowing that the British consul was on the way and that he would probably try to outbid Nachtigal, the wily old African held off for a week before he would sign. Scarcely had Nachtigal forced him into action when His Britannic Majesty's consul arrived, only to find a weather-beaten explorer complacently smoking his big pipe under the shadow of the Hamburg American



A TYPE OF TRADING STATION ON AN AFRICAN RIVER

(The carrying trade of these "factories" is rapidly being won by the German cargo boats)



YOUNG ARAB GIRLS OF THE PEASANT CLASS

flag. Great Britain had been too slow—that was all.

(4) The next year (1885) the German outwitted the Briton again, on the east coast this time. East of Lake Tanganika, between British and Portuguese East Africa, lies the big colony of German East Africa. This also was acquired cleverly but legally through treaties with native chiefs. Three Germans who were supposed to be mechanics landed and appeared to be unwelcome guests at the German consulate. Nobody kept track of them as they wandered about and then trailed off into the interior—but when they trailed back to the coast they had the documents that enabled Germany to raise its flag over a region that makes it apparently impossible for England to realize its dream of an unbroken stretch of empire from Cairo to Cape Town, with a railroad running entirely across Africa. That railroad could be carried on British soil from Khartoum through the Sudan nearly to Tanganika; and it has already been brought northward through British territory nearly to the southern end of the lake. The ever-present reflection that it was the German who shattered this rosy dream is one of several reasons why England and Germany do not love each other as deeply as the peace advocates desire. Incidentally, these two disconnected ends of railroad pointing toward each other across an irremovable barrier throw light upon another

African puzzle—Great Britain's sustained appeal to the nations for intervention in the Belgian Congo. A redistribution of that Congo country would have filled in the gap in the British empire and also connected the Cape to Cairo Railroad. Of course the railroad will go through whenever it becomes a commercial necessity, but something must happen in Africa before it can become a military road controlled from end to end by one nation.

The extent of these German colonies may be expressed in familiar terms as follows: Togo is about two-thirds as large as the State of New York and has a population about two-thirds as large as that of Philadelphia, with 372 white residents. The Cameroons would make three States like New York, and the population is one and a half times that of Chicago, with 1284 whites. German Southwest Africa would make six and a half States the size of New York, yet it is credited with a native population scarcely larger than that of Nashville or Omaha. It has a European population of about 13,000, however, mainly Germans. German East Africa is seven and a half times the size of New York State and has a mixed population twice that of New York City. It also has the second largest European population—3756.

After you have added up every square mile of German territory in Africa and computed both its actual and its potential value, the greatest single item is yet to be added—the German cargo-boat along the African coast. It is the Hamburg sea-captain and not the colonial official who makes the Kaiser to-day



A GROUP OF STREET ARABS IN NORTH AFRICA

one of the three great overlords of the Dark Continent. Go where you will up and down the coast, on either side, and you will not be long in any port before you see the Hamburg flag at the stern of a heavily laden steamer. In the most unexpected places along that "rottenest coast in the world" you will find a German "factory" stocked with "made-in-Germany" merchandise and exchanging it for palm-oil and other products of the African bush. These trading stations do sufficient business to give every outward and homeward-bound freighter the nucleus of a cargo, and a nucleus is all that the captain wants. The German has already learned how to take the sea-trade away from the captain of every other nation that sails those dangerous seas.

For a thousand miles up and down that coast the writer has watched the contest of the cargo-boats, from their decks and from the shore. Far away on the horizon appears a Hamburg steamer inward-bound. By the time its anchor drops off-shore, you see that the cargo for that port has all been hoisted on deck and the launch and surf-boats are swinging over the sides. Almost by the time the anchor hits the bottom the surf-boats are in the water and the steam winches are lowering the cargo. In a very short space of time the launch is towing a string of them to the landing, where the company's agent has made all arrangements for



THE CHIEF OF ALL THE ARABS OF ALGERIA
(The most important native chief in French Africa)

speedy unloading. The steamship captain is not much in evidence during this operation; the junior officers engineer the handling of the cargo. But if you go into the captain's cabin you will probably see him entertaining the managers of the trading houses at that port, telling them the news at home, "jolly" them in the jovial German fashion—and incidentally telling them when he will come along to pick up cargo for Hamburg. And the system works like a charm. Again and again I have seen a Hamburger creeping slowly homeward with his vessel so weighted down with palm-oil that it looked in the distance almost like a submarine, while ahead had gone a Liverpool steamer almost in ballast. The captains of these boats get a commission on the homeward cargo and the



ON A GERMAN RAILROAD IN EAST AFRICA

(Dark travelers in an open wagon of the German East-African Usambara line buying fruit from peddlers at one of the stations)

German's sociability wins for him the lion's share of the spoil. Many a British "factory" will let an Elder-Dempster boat go by and hold his hogshead of palm-oil for the German. Service and sociability—this is the secret of the German conquest of the West African seas. Once the Liverpool flag monopolized the carrying trade. Now, on the high seas, you will see one flag quite as frequently as the other; but if you go into some independent port like Monrovia, you will be almost certain to see two German flags to one Union Jack.

This is the big reason why Berlin is so keenly interested in Africa, and why it kicks up a row every little while about Morocco. Germany does not want Morocco, nor does she expect to get it. Possibly a coaling-station might be acceptable, but that is a small matter. It is the trade of Africa that Germany wants, and she is getting it in every port where she has anything like an equal chance. Why is it that Germany—and not the United States—which is the real hope of the American colony of Liberia in its present effort to avoid being gobbled up by Great Britain or France? Simply because the trade of Liberia is worth having, and Germany has the best part of it already. For this reason the Hamburg house of Woermann stands close to the Government and tides it over in many emergencies—and the German consul lines

up on the side of the American minister whenever a grave crisis appears.

The German does not have much of a showing in a French port, hence, the fewer French ports in Africa the better the German is pleased. It would be a decided commercial gain to have Libreville, on the Equator. Incidentally, the cession of the coast of the French Congo would double the area of the Cameroons and bring that colony 350 miles nearer to German Southwest Africa. Between would lie only the Portuguese colony of Angola. Everybody knows that Portugal has troubles at home nowadays and would be helpless if provoked into an African embroglio with Germany. It would be very easy to provide a boundary dispute or imagine the need of protection for some German trader or miner in Portuguese territory—to be ended by annexing Angola and thus linking up the main German colonies on the West Coast. But suppose England should interfere just as Germany has interfered with the French plans in Morocco? Very well; just across the continent is Portuguese East Africa—bordering on a British colony. Possibly an agreement might be reached whereby Germany would keep her hands off if something should happen over there that would lead to the absorption of Portuguese East Africa by British South Africa. Neither nation is above a transaction of this kind, and



THE BRASS BAND OF THE PUPILS OF THE GERMAN SCHOOL AT TONGA, EAST AFRICA

who would dare to say them nay if they should get together on it. But whether the German diplomatic mind runs in this direction or another, the gain of Libreville would be a great advantage to German sea-trade. It would no longer be profitable for a Marseilles freighter to steam farther southward than the Gulf of Guinea—and the German would have a monopoly of at least half of the west coast.

But it is this all-important sea-trade that will make Germany hesitate longest before plunging into a war with England. Unless the British navy could be quickly and completely crushed, the Hamburg freighters would be driven from those seas at once. It would take many navies to properly guard that surf-ridden coast-line. And where would fleets of warships coal if they were to remain indefinitely on outpost duty?

At the close of any war between England and Germany, with or without France, the map-makers would be required to recolor the map of Africa. Whichever nation might win at sea would have the other's colonies at its mercy. With the loss of colonies goes prestige and trade. That the Kaiser is keenly interested may well be believed, for

he is reported to be one of the largest stockholders in the German merchant marine.

The world at large need not be apprehensive at the prospect of Germany playing a freer hand in African politics. Two-score years and more have removed most of the skepticism about the German's adaptability for colonization. Perhaps he is less imperial in his upbuilding when compared with the French, but the isolation of his colonies forbids vast railroad projects and ocean-to-ocean telegraph lines. In his attitude toward the African native and his methods of fitting him for enlarged opportunities, the German



THE STREET-CLEANING DEPARTMENT OF A GERMAN EAST AFRICAN TOWN AT WORK



DRILLING NATIVE SOLDIERS IN GERMAN EAST AFRICA

deserves the commendation of all good men. A large part of Africa must forever remain uninhabitable for any large white population and its destiny rests in the hands of the native. Without the blowing of horns and the noise of the press-agent, the German is training the young African in his own way—and making a pretty good job of it.

The writer has watched the German closely in his relations to these half-wild protégés on the west coast. The administration of government there is largely a matter of temperament and the men from the Rhine country are probably less easily driven into irritability than any other white men. There have been occasional charges of cruelty and oppression, it is true, but the Germans themselves have been quickest to call the responsible officials to account. Besides, we should

remember that the administrative job in Africa is one of the hardest in the world. The heat and the rains, the isolation and privations of the white man's life, and the debility that comes from frequent fevers drive the amiability from most men who work within the equatorial belt. Moreover, the official is expected to work miracles with a primitive and sluggish people—and the African is at times the laziest, the stubbornest, and the stupidest creature ever fashioned in the form of man.

After observing the white men of many nations at the task of regenerating Africa, one cannot escape a conviction that the German native will rise as high in the scale, if not higher, than any other within the same belt. At the same time, were the present writer an African he should prefer to live under the French flag.



A MISSION SCHOOL IN WILHELMSTHAL, GERMAN EAST AFRICA

(Singing lesson conducted by the minister who is seen on the right)



BEURDELEY BEHRENS
(France) (Great Britain)

YOUNG (Canada)	DARLEY (Austria)	POLACCHI (France)	KELTIE (Great Britain)	JOHNSTON (Great Britain)
KÜBEL (United States)	PARTSCH (Saxony)	BRÜCKNER (Austria)	LOCZY (Hungary)	WILCKENS (Germany)
			TETTAU (Germany)	CLOSE (Great Britain)
CAPUTO (Italy)	LALLEMAND (France)	VON HARDTENTHURN (Austria)	GRANT (Great Britain)	PENCK (Germany)
				WILLIS (United States)
				CUBILLO (Spain)

THE WORLD'S LEADING GEOGRAPHERS—DELEGATES TO THE LONDON CONFERENCE OF NOVEMBER, 1909, WHICH ADOPTED THE SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL STANDARD MAP

MAPPING THE WORLD ON A STANDARD SCALE

BY HERBERT T. WADE

SO much of our knowledge of the geography of the world is acquired from maps that it is quite natural to take these representations of the surface of the earth for granted without considering either their full significance or the method of their preparation. Yet so important is the matter that recently the leading nations have united to construct a standard international map of the world, the various sheets of which, prepared to the same scale, shall be uniform in the method of representation, delineation, and symbols.

The matter of scale was the first important consideration, and it will be recalled at once

from our school days, if not from our daily experience, that comparatively few of the maps of the atlases are drawn to the same scale. As a result it is indeed rare for people to have a clear idea of the relative extent of territory of different states and nations, particularly those situated on different continents. Even different States of the United States are not thought of with their proper comparative areas, except by those specially informed or trained. This is because the page of the atlas or school geography is taken as a standard, and the individual map is reproduced to fill it irrespective of scale, with the aim of showing as much detail as possible.

For this reason few people in the Eastern States realize that Colorado, with its area of 103,925 square miles, is seven times the extent of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, which together include 14,555 square miles. And going outside the national domain, yet not into unfamiliar fields, how many, either school children or adults, realize that France is of smaller area than the State of Texas?

Furthermore, not only is this matter of scale important, but there is the added question of collecting all the available geographical knowledge of the world on a single uniform set of maps.

THE NEED OF A STANDARD MAP

It is, of course, obvious that our knowledge of the earth's surface as expressed on maps must vary greatly in different regions, so that in assembling this material into one standard map it is found that while there may be complete and minute data for one continent, there may be practically nothing for another. Thus there are parts of the world that are adequately surveyed, for instance all of Europe except the Balkan Peninsula, where centuries of military operations have required and led to the construction of maps so thorough that often there is a wealth of detail in excess of that needed for ordinary scientific or commercial purposes.

The same condition holds good, though to a less extent, for about two-thirds of the United States, where the progress of civilization, the opening of new country to settlement, and a rapid economic development have produced a similar condition for much of its area. But there are other parts of America and fairly extensive areas of Africa, Asia, and South America, where there are more or less accurate maps that show merely the distribution of streams and the location of the principal places, but give no information as to altitudes and land forms. Finally there are those remaining regions of which our knowledge ranges from a mere guess to some other degree of inadequacy.

Such being the condition of geographical knowledge, it was not strange that a proposition for a standard international map of the world should be brought before various geographical congresses as early as 1891, but it was not finally decided upon until the autumn of 1909 at an international conference called by the British Government. Austria, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, Russia, Spain, and the United States formally participated,

while Australia, Canada, and Saxony were represented. Formal resolutions and a detailed plan were adopted; France, Germany, Great Britain, and Russia agreed to prepare the map for Europe, Africa, Asia, and Australia, while Canada and the United States became responsible for their territory, leaving but Central and South America unprovided for.

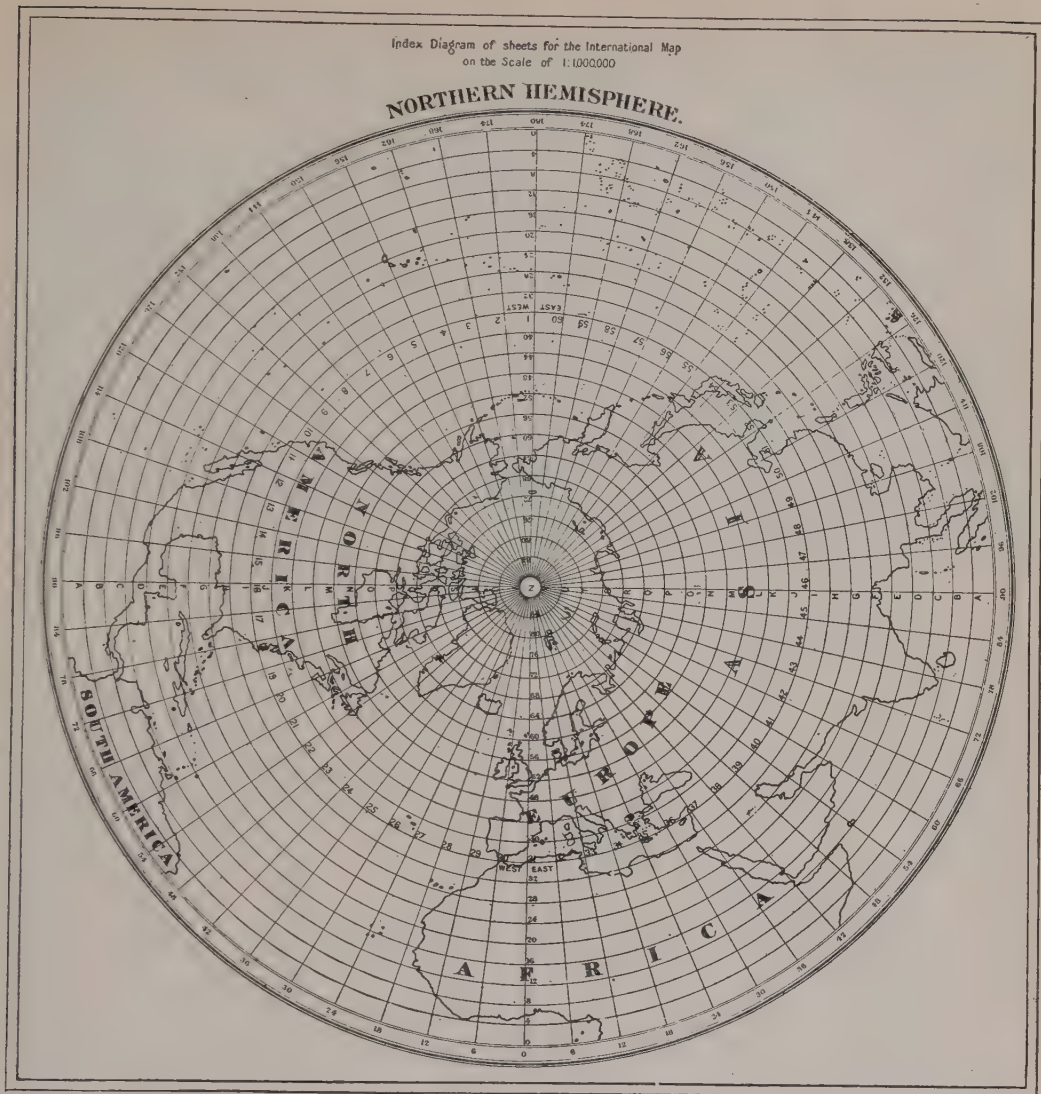
A second congress will be held in Rome, Italy, in October and will be attended by R. B. Marshall, Chief Geographer of the United States Geological Survey as representative of that organization and the American Government.

Bailey Willis, Geologist of the United States Geological Survey, and S. S. Kübel, the Chief Engraver of that organization, were the delegates of the United States to the conference of 1909. Mr. Willis, soon after his return to America, undertook with the authority of the American Government a mission to South America and secured the much-desired coöperation of several of the most important countries.

Thus auspiciously inaugurated, work was straightway begun on this new standard international map and it is now progressing actively. For the well-known and adequately surveyed area, as in Europe, where all data are available, it is only a question of putting to work draftsmen and engravers, directing them to carry out the spirit of the joint resolutions making new plates from old material. In Europe the actual publication can be arranged with competent map-publishing houses, but the United States Government did not deem it advisable to put its material and data at the disposal of European firms, and consequently it is being compiled for publication by the Geological Survey in accordance with its fixed policy of low costs and official publication. With a number of these maps in actual process of preparation it is of interest to consider some of their chief features.

THE ONE-MILLIONTH MAP

The scale selected for the new International Map is quite large, one to a million, or in other words one inch on the map would correspond to nearly sixteen miles on the earth's surface. This is sufficiently large to enable the villages as well as the cities to be shown, and also the railways, principal roads, important water courses, the general form of the hills and mountains and the beds of the oceans and great lakes. That this size will prove useful for all purposes, commercial as



INDEX DIAGRAM OF SHEETS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL MAP

(A similar diagram is used for the Southern Hemisphere)

well as political and scientific, will appear when we consider the map as a whole and also the individual sheets. Each of these will measure about 25 x 20 inches and will comprise six degrees of longitude and four degrees of latitude, or an area somewhat smaller than that of the State of Wyoming.

Consequently there will be required to cover the entire surface of the earth 2640 sheets, each of which will bear an international number and letter, as shown on the accompanying map of one of the hemispheres. The letters are arranged north and south from the Equator, each sheet being designated in latitude by a letter and in longitude by a number,

as North B 12. The lettering begins at the Equator with A preceded by North or South and extends to V, with the polar areas designated by Z. Just as the initial parallel is the Equator, so the initial meridian is the antemeridian of Greenwich, 180° East or West, this line passing through the Pacific Ocean. The sectors are numbered from 1 to 60, increasing in an easterly direction. It may be remarked in passing that the selection of Greenwich as the primary meridian is a striking evidence of the progress in scientific work made possible by international coöperation, for the French geographers with most commendable spirit expressed their willingness to



INTERNATIONAL MAP OF THE WORLD—ARRANGEMENT OF ATLAS SHEETS FOR THE UNITED STATES



Photograph by Bachrach, Washington

ACHESON F. HASSAM
(Cartographer)

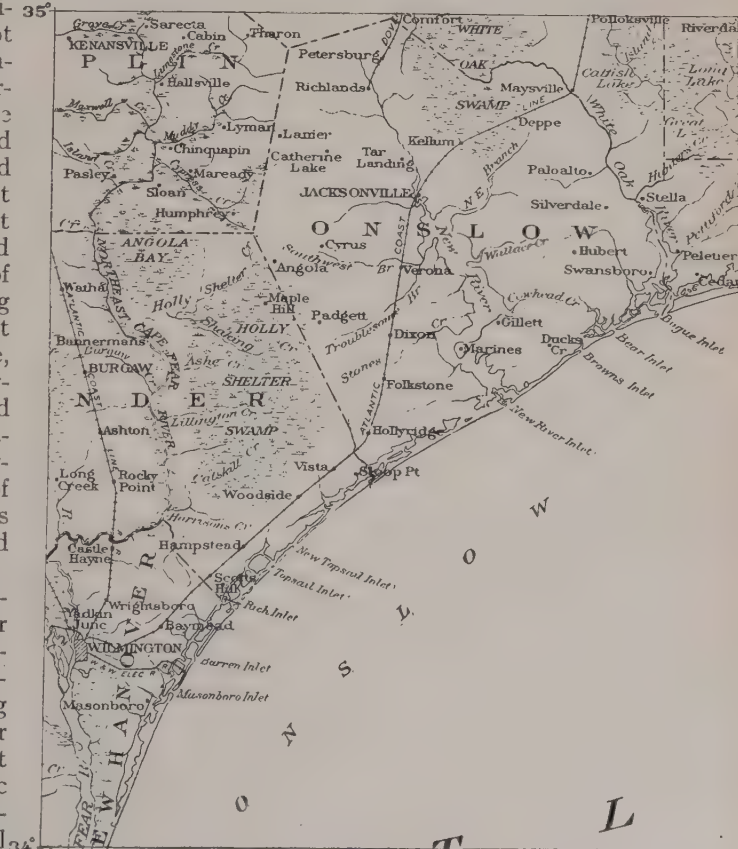
GEORGE OTIS SMITH
(Director)

ROBERT BRADFORD MARSHALL
(Chief Geographer)

OFFICIALS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY ACTIVE IN COMPILING THE AMERICAN STANDARD MAP

abandon Paris as a primary meridian to accept that of their British neighbors. And the same subordination of national pride to scientific progress and international comity led the French Republic but a few months ago to adopt international standard time with the meridian of Greenwich as a starting point. It would seem most appropriate, therefore, that a corresponding liberality should be manifested by the Anglo-Saxon nations in adopting the international metric system of weights and measures which had its origin and development in France.

The map sheets described will not number 2640, as about three-fourths of the earth's surface is ocean, the mapping of which is unnecessary for the present purpose, so that to include even the Oceanic islands it will not be necessary to construct in all for the International Atlas more than 1500 sheets. Each sheet bears in addi-



SMALL SECTION, ONE DEGREE SQUARE, OF SHEET "NORTH I-18"

(From an advance sheet of the base-map. It shows the scale 1:1,000,000. Refer to Section I-18 on opposite page)

tion to its number the name of the locality represented, or the most important geographical feature of the territory, and shows a small index diagram giving the names and numbers of the eight surrounding sheets, which will serve as a convenient reference in joining sheets when a map of large extent is desired.

This will be appreciated by reference to the accompanying reduced map of the United States, which if made of the sheets and mounted would measure approximately 20 x 12 feet. In other words the sheets falling to the United States south of Canada and including slices of the oceans, Canada, and Mexico, number fifty-two, and of these the United States Geological Survey has in preparation nine covering parts of the Eastern, Central, and Western States.

COMPILING THE MAP

From the geographical data of the Survey the base maps are now being compiled on a scale of 1 : 500,000, or 7.89 miles to the inch, and they may be reproduced by photography or photo-lithography on the same or smaller scales. The engraving of the map, however, will be on the 1 : 1,000,000 scale. Mr. R. B. Marshall, Chief Geographer and chairman of the 1 : 1,000,000 map committee of the United States Geological Survey Committee, is in charge of this work and has recently stated that: "It is to be hoped that the task may be prosecuted with such energy, that the first edition of the one millionth map of the United States, as a part of the standard map of the world, may be engraved and published within ten years."

The compilation involves four distinct elements: namely; control, drainage, culture and topography. The control consists of all places or positions which have been determined astronomically or by triangulation, and are found on various surveys, topographical and other maps, such as those of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Geological Survey, and especially those of the Land Office, which have been adjusted to the geodetic positions or precise geographical points on the earth's surface, taking into consideration, of course, its curvature.

The drainage consists of all lakes, rivers, streams, canals, swamps, and other water bodies, carefully adjusted as regards position to the control discussed above, and so drawn as to preserve their characteristic bends and branchings. The culture includes the various political boundaries, as of States, counties, reservations, etc., and Land Office lines, and

villages, railroads, electric railways, and highways (or roads and trails). Of these a proper selection is made, so as to secure all essential elements, yet not to crowd the map unduly, for each of these features carries its appropriate name. The outline, control, drainage and culture give the base map and are printed in black. On this must be overlaid the topography which is compiled concurrently with the base map.

Unlike most of the nations of Europe, the United States has not complete topographic data and maps for its entire territory, leaving out of question its insular possessions. But the United States Geological Survey has been at work on the preparation of a map or atlas of the entire country and has now surveyed about 1,107,765 square miles, exclusive of Alaska, or more than one-third of the United States. For this territory official maps are available at nominal cost as soon as published by the Survey. These maps, while lacking the refinements of European military and other maps in many cases, are of the greatest practical use. These sheets will be used wherever available, supplemented by the best data to be obtained from other sources.

The topographic map aims to produce a map directly from nature by measurements and sketches, which shows not only the natural features, such as drainage and relief, but also those known to the topographer as "cultural," or those which depend upon man, as railways, canals, mines, buildings, etc. The topographic sheets, mapped in the field and inked in the office of the Survey, of course are published on a larger scale than the Standard International Map and one of the sheets of the usual size represents a section of country that one might walk across in a few hours. But the redrawing while eliminating the non-essential detail takes into consideration all the essential features and reproduces them at the desired scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

Thus the topographical relief, or differences of altitude over a region, will be shown by generalized contour lines connecting points at the same altitude and spaced at intervals depending upon the level or mountainous character of the country and the extent to which data are available. To bring out detail too small to be shown by the contours and the minor features of the valleys, shading will be used, but open contours and limited shading will prevail, so as not to obscure the base map. The topographical map thus compiled upon a photo-lithographic copy of the base map will give the copy for engraving the 1 : 1,000,000 map, the features of which will be printed in



GEOLOGICAL SURVEY DRAFTSMAN COMPILING UNITED STATES PORTION OF INTERNATIONAL MAP

the various colors specified in the international agreement.

It may be said that the execution of the original copy now being made by the United States Geological Survey is being accomplished not only with great care as to accuracy of compilation, but also with special attention as to delineation and the quality of lettering and other details, to secure the best possible reproduction by direct photo-lithography.

UNIFORMITY OF NOMENCLATURE

The achievement of uniformity in these International Standard maps has been further accomplished by agreement on a number of important conventions aside from matters of scale and projection. Thus the spelling and transliteration of names is to be that of the country or dominion represented by the map and the Latin alphabet is to be used. Accordingly such familiar terms as "The Hague" will appear as "S'Gravenhagen," "Vienna" will be "Wien," "Florence," "Firenze," etc. On the maps of China and Russia, Chinese and Russian characters will not be used, and as regards Chinese names, always a stumbling block to cartographers, the usage of the Post and Customs Service will be followed.

The conventional signs agreed upon follow in the main those used for many years on

maps of the United States Geological Survey, lettering and symbols being specified with definiteness in order to secure absolute uniformity. All culture is in black except roads which are red; all drainage is in blue, contours in brown, and shading in gray. Names will be in the same colors as the features except mountains which are lettered in black.

To show topographic relief, there will be drawn a series of generalized contours with intervals varying from 100 meters (328 feet) in normal country to 200, 500, or 1000 in hilly or mountainous regions; and color effects will be used to show the distribution of altitudes and sea depths. Different shades of blue will denote different depths of lakes and seas, three shades of green will indicate lowlands from sea level to 300 meters (984.25 feet), pale buff will be used up to 500 meters (1640.42 feet), followed by brown gradually growing darker up to 3000 meters (9842.50 feet), then comes violet fading into white at the highest elevations above 7000 meters (22,965.83 feet).

Once these and other conventions are found on the Standard International maps it is to be hoped that they will become universal and the maps of atlases, guide books, encyclopædias and other reference works published in different countries will soon be made on a uniform basis, not to mention the various official maps which to-day show a striking lack of harmony.

In the single matter of relief, for example, there is great diversity.

On Chinese maps the shapes of the mountains are shown, in Germany and Austria slopes are indicated by hachures, in France there is shading as in a relief model or plaster map, while in the United States points at the same altitude are connected by contour lines spaced at certain definite distances of elevation.

To secure international and scientific uniformity, the metric scale is to be used in preference to other measures, inasmuch as every map shall bear a scale expressed in kilometers, and altitudes will be marked in meters both for fixed points and contours, but other scales and equivalent values in other units may be added. Accordingly for British and American maps a scale of miles will be added just as is done with the maps of the Coast Survey which are prepared from surveys where the metric measures are used.

When a sheet covers an area belonging to several neighboring countries, it was agreed that the government producing the map should consult with all the governments in-

terested as regards the material available, but more especially as regards nomenclature.

The completion of the Standard International Map of the world not only is of importance for its primary objects, but for the great impetus that it will give to the exploration and survey of the less known regions of the world, as a good-natured rivalry is bound to ensue in completing the quota of the sheets assigned to each nation. To do this, further surveys will be instituted, while from time to time additions and corrections will be made to existing sheets. Finally, when the world map is completed, it will afford a satisfactory base map on which may be laid coloring or other modifications for census purposes, for geology, ethnography, crops, meteorology, and similar objects.

What the time required to complete this great atlas will be, it is of course impossible to tell. For the sheets to be compiled by the

United States Geological Survey it is estimated that the base and topographic maps can be completed in ten or twelve years at the present rate of Federal appropriations. But with the coöperation of the individual States this time can be reduced materially. The estimated cost of compiling the base map without the topography is stated as from \$15 to \$35 per thousand square miles. The cost is least, of course, where the topographic surveys are full and complete, and most in densely settled districts where many names and details of culture must be added, or where a lack of maps or surveys makes compilation difficult. So well organized is the geographic work of the Geological Survey, compensating in large measure for the poor work of American private map makers, that the cost can be gauged with considerable exactness and the work prosecuted with vigor and precision as funds are provided.



GEOLOGICAL SURVEY DRAFTSMAN USING THE PANTOGRAPH IN COMPILING THE UNITED STATES PORTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL MAP

(This is to reduce a map to a smaller scale)



SELF-SUPPORTING PUPILS IN THE VINELAND TRAINING SCHOOL

(The picture at the left represents these boys—half-brothers—as they came from the poorhouse to enter the Training School in 1901. The picture at the right is from a photograph taken after they had been in the school just eight years. One of the boys now acts as assistant to the teachers in gymnasium and handicraft work; the other in the tailor shop. Both can read, write, and “cipher”; but can never be released altogether from institutional control. Since, however they are self-supporting, the State appropriation for them has been withdrawn)

AN EXPERIMENT STATION IN RACE IMPROVEMENT

BY FRANCES MAULE BJÖRKMAN

IN one of those institutions that, in the old days, would have been called an “idiot asylum,” there was a little boy known as Peter.

For a long time after his arrival at the institution Peter was a serious problem. In all his classes he sat staring apathetically before him, taking the work that was put into his hands, holding it patiently until it was taken away, but doing absolutely nothing with it.

However, none of his teachers—for in this institution they do teach even idiots—forced or urged him. They just kept on, day after day, giving him the materials for work and trying with all sorts of gentle wiles to interest him in what the other children were doing.

Then at Easter some one sent him a toy rabbit, and in the manual training class next day he produced this from his pocket, took up his tools and began a pitiful attempt to carve out a copy of it in the wood before him. Quick to seize the advantage; his teacher, a young woman of unusual pedagogical acumen, helped and guided the fumbling little hands until another rabbit actually did begin to take form before the boy’s delighted eyes.

After that there was no trouble with Peter. A way had been found into his mind, and his sleeping faculties had been awakened and set to work. Before long it became evident that somewhere in his darkened mentality there had been lying dormant a real gift for wood-working, and to-day Peter is

rapidly developing into an excellent carpenter.

In this same institution there was another difficult child by the name of Daisy. Daisy was one of the restless, troublesome kind. She "couldn't keep her mind on her work." She fidgeted, spoiled materials, distracted the other children.

One day somebody gave Daisy a doll—a wonderful creature of peculiar charms and accomplishments; and Daisy's delight in it gave her teachers an idea. The same discerning young woman in the manual training room suggested that it would be splendid for Daisy to build a house for her new doll. Daisy took to the notion at once; and the sewing teacher, the modeling teacher, and the teacher of weaving and basketry, coached by the manual training teacher, took up the suggestion and urged the desirability of curtains, dishes, rugs, and carpets for the doll's house.

So Daisy fell to work, encouraged and stimulated in every class, to build and furnish a dwelling suitable for her darling; and almost from the start she began to manifest powers that her teachers had at best only suspected. She had been supplied with a life interest, something she wanted to do and saw a reason for doing; and this called forth, naturally and inevitably, the latent capacities of her sluggish intelligence.

The institution in which these two miracles were performed—for miracles they would have been considered a decade or two ago—is the Vineland Training School for Feeble-minded Boys and Girls; but although it sets the standards for all the other institutions of its kind in the country, and has made the name of the little town of Vineland famous wherever the care and training of mentally defective children is being studied, it is beginning to be valued not so much for its work for the sub-normal—remarkable as that is—as for the light that this work throws upon what has been called "the new science of humaniculture."

For here—here in this "idiot asylum"—they are actually applying, and with almost unvarying success, certain radical new theories in regard to the training and education of children that, as far as the normal are concerned, have as yet hardly got beyond the point of academic discussion.

Here they have demonstrated in innumerable such cases as those of Peter and Daisy the validity of the theory, so warmly advocated by many of the foremost students of modern educational methods, but so suspi-

ciously regarded by most parents and teachers, that a child ought not to be forced to do anything it does not want to do, nor prevented from doing anything it does want to do. They have learned that a child's desire is a precious blossom to be watched and watered with the tenderest care, because it is the index to that child's special aptitudes. What a child wants to do, it can do. Therefore, unlike the run of educationally orthodox teachers and parents who feel bound to force or persuade or cajole their children into doing their will, these people at Vineland bend their efforts to find out what is the child's will—and then work that will for all it is worth. The results speak for themselves—in miracles, like those wrought upon Peter and Daisy.

They have also worked out to successful conclusions, the theory, even more provocative to "practical" disciplinarians, that punishment is futile—even harmful. Experience and a knowledge of the laws of modern psychology have taught them that punishments actually increase the chances of repetition of the act punished because they focus the child's attention upon it. On the other hand, rewards for good conduct, by turning the child's mind in that direction, are conducive of more good conduct.

INCENTIVES,—NOT PENALTIES

At Vineland, therefore, they have abolished the penalty and set up the incentive. Chief of these, perhaps, is the "store privilege."

Each child is provided with a "store credit card," and upon this it gets a mark from each of its teachers to whom its lessons and conduct have been satisfactory. Each of these marks is equivalent to a penny, and on Saturday the child can go to the store and buy as many pennies' worth as there are marks. The children who fail in lessons or conduct are not punished; they simply do not get the marks that would have enabled them to gratify some long-cherished desire for ball or top, for doll or hair-ribbon.

Another incentive lies in the system of grouping the children according to their "dependableness," the most dependable groups having the most privileges, the least dependable, the fewest. An increase of dependableness in any child is immediately rewarded by a transfer to one of the more desirable groups. In the case of a falling off, the culprit goes back, not as a punishment, but as a logical result of unreliability—a simple process that even the dullest seem able to grasp.

The motto of the Training School, printed large in all its literature, is, "We believe in happiness first, all else follows;" and here "happiness" is no mere sentimental abstraction, but an intensely practical working force.

STIMULATING INDIVIDUALITY

Since one of the essentials to happiness is granted by psychologists to be a proud sense of individuality, every effort is made to develop individuality—even in such small matters as clothes. The children are not required to wear a uniform, but are encouraged to choose their own things and to take an interest in their appearance. The size of the school makes it impossible to give to each pupil an individual birthday party, but since it is felt that each child's birthday should be remembered, the teachers have adopted the expedient of having one big party every month for all the children whose birthdays fall within that month. Once a week they have a contest—with prizes—in which every child, down to the dullest, is given a chance to show off what he can do in the line



A PUPIL WHO CAN NEITHER READ NOR WRITE, BUT WHO PAYS HER WAY BY USEFUL WORK

(She is a waitress in the school dining-room, does beautiful woodwork, and plays the cornet in the band)



A GOOD PIANIST,—SKILLED AND TRUSTWORTHY IN ALL FORMS OF INDUSTRIAL WORK
(This pupil helps in the kindergarten)

in which he is most proficient, be it only scrubbing floors or washing dishes—and just as much applause is given to those who do scrub floors and wash dishes, and just as much attention to the awarding of their prizes, as to the higher grade children who "speak pieces" or sing songs.

NOT AFRAID OF FUN

Entertainments, plays, concerts, jollifications of all kinds are going on constantly. Christmas eve every child hangs up its stocking and wakes to find it bulging with its own peculiar wants, just as if it were the petted darling of a private home—and there is always a tree, and a Santa Claus, and more presents on Christmas Day. Every holiday, down to the most insignificant, is celebrated with its own appropriate exercises, and every common day is begun with a glorious general romp, called "morning assembly."

They are not a bit afraid at Vineland of spoiling children with too much fun. Fun, they say, is a primary condition to effective educational work. What they do fear is unhappiness, depression, boredom. So much do



ONE OF THE "HIGH-GRADE" GIRLS

(She will learn to do the necessary things in life, but cannot be trusted to go out from institutional control)

which the children are taken on camping trips during the Summer.

These things are provided, not as amusements merely, but as *the* important part of the educational equipment. Tennis, baseball, foot-ball, basket-ball, and all other games and sports are not only encouraged as in the ordinary school, but are systematically taught to all the children as an integral part of their school work. Whatever develops muscular coördination, they say at Vineland, tends to develop brain power also.

COTTAGE GROUPS

The children—some 400 in number—are housed in large family groups, classified ac-

they fear these things, indeed, that to fight them they have organized a secret society—the strangest secret society in the world. It has no officers, holds no meetings, and recognizes only two by-laws. They are these: one member seeing another member looking cross or sad must say instantly, "Do you belong?" and the other member must answer—with a smile.

Music—martial, stirring and gay—is used constantly and designedly to keep up this all-desirable spirit of joy. There is an institution band, of course; and to its inspiring drums and brasses the children go through a large part of their work and play. Singing too, in solo, quartet, sextet, and chorus, of songs selected especially for their inspiring quality, forms a prominent feature of the daily program.

AMUSEMENT AS PART OF THE SCHOOLING

On the institution grounds there is a little Zoo containing wolves, foxes, ferrets, rabbits, squirrels, guinea-pigs, and many different kinds of birds. There is a fountain with gold fish in it, a merry-go-round, many swings. There are tennis courts, an athletic field, school gardens, a band-stand. On the wide spaces of smooth lawn shaded by beautiful big trees, not a single "keep-off-the-grass" sign is anywhere visible. Four miles away, out in the "real country" the institution holds a piece of woodland on a little river to

cording to mental grade, in ten attractive little cottages furnished in as homelike and "un-institutional" a manner as the most exacting could ask. Each of these is presided over by a "house-mother," selected not only for her experience, but for her love for and sympathetic understanding of the particular class of children with which she has to deal, so that in the home life as well as in the strictly educational activities, the children are subjected to only those influences that the Vineland people recognize as most favorable to the development of the mind and soul.

PEDAGOGICAL METHODS

The teaching proper centers, naturally, in manual training and gymnasium, although the elementary academic branches are taught, and taught successfully despite the well-nigh overwhelming difficulties of imparting to the feeble-minded anything like abstract knowledge.

Here is where the new educational theories of which I have spoken receive their severest test and come off most highly vindicated. A single little incident that I chanced to witness while I was making the rounds of the school illuminates significantly the workings of the system.

In one of the class-rooms devoted to the academic branches a boy stood at a black-board writing to the teacher's dictation:

"Cedar," she pronounced.

"S-e-d-e-r" wrote the boy.

"That's very good, John," she said brightly, "but I'm sure you can do even better. Try again."

The boy rubbed out the word, paused a moment then wrote, "c-e-d-e-r."

"Splendid!" cried the teacher. "One more trial now, and I'm sure you'll get it just perfect. Come now, think of the sound!"

Once more the boy erased what he had written, and formed the letters, "c-e-d-," then paused.

The teacher took the chalk from him. "See here, John, she said, writing the word on the board and underscoring the "a," "what's this letter?"

"Oh, I see!" John exclaimed, nodding eagerly—then quickly finished out his own word correctly.

"You see," whispered the teacher, "we do not direct the children's attention to their mistakes, because that only concentrates their minds upon them, but to the things that we want them to remember."



A BOY IN THE IMBECILE CLASS WHO WAS RENDERED FULLY SELF-SUPPORTING THROUGH TRAINING IN INDUSTRIAL WORK



A NINETEEN-YEAR-OLD PUPIL OF THE SCHOOL
(This boy can read, write, and use figures, and do various kinds of handicraft work. He also plays in the band, and is self-supporting)

In this room there were no printed study books. "We make our own readers," the teacher said, showing me a number of papers covered with childish scrawls. A subject having a natural interest to the children is selected—trees, birds, butterflies, guinea-pigs, frogs—and the class troops out to study the tree or the guinea-pig or the frog in its native habitat. They learn as much as they can hold about the subject, and then come back and write down what they have learned; and these writings constitute their lesson books.

"So you can easily understand," said the teacher, "that such things as our zoo, our goldfish fountain, our gardens, woods, orchards and barns, have a very real educational value to our children. We find here that every child, however dull, is more or less interested in the things he sees about him, while even the brightest are profoundly indifferent to written words until they are shown, vividly and convincingly, the connection between the reality and the symbol. Our children, reversing the Dotheboys Hall method of first spelling w-i-n-d-e-r, winder, and then going and washing it; first go out and see a cedar, climb a cedar, carve their names upon a cedar. and then come back and write about it."



THE "HIGHEST-GRADE" BOYS IN THE SCHOOL

(They will all become self-supporting in due time)

LABORATORY TESTS

For five years now the school at Vineland has maintained a laboratory of psychological research, the only one of its kind in the country. Here all the children in the institution are repeatedly tested for mental capacity, weighed and measured and photographed by the newest and most scientific devices. Two assistants work in the office tabulating and classifying all this data, while three others go about among the homes of the children gathering information in regard to their family histories as far back, sometimes, as five generations. Much of this information is of immediate practical use in the treatment of the children of the school, and when it has been sufficiently studied and tested, it will almost undoubtedly furnish laws and standards by means of which the mental capacity of any child can be accurately measured, and the kind and degree of training it can take on determined to a nicety. But its chief importance, experts agree, is the light it throws on the whole subject of race improvement. The two hundred family trees that have already been worked out by Dr. Goddard are said to form the most complete and reliable data ever collected on the subject of human

heredity, and from them, say the scientists, principles of the very deepest significance to the future of humanity will unquestionably be deduced.

The results of the novel educational methods in use in the institution have been measured, not only by practical use, but scientifically by means of exact experiments.

In Dr. Goddard's laboratory there is a machine called the ergograph which measures exactly in kilometers and centigrams just how much vital force the operator is able to exert at a given moment. Innumerable experiments upon the children with this machine have demonstrated beyond all question that more force can be exerted by a person in a happy frame of mind, or under the influence of encouragement or pleasurable excitement, than by the same person in a mood of sadness and discouragement. An experiment made in my presence upon a boy of fifteen, the graphic record of which is herewith reproduced, shows strikingly just how encouragement can cause a measurable increase in vital force, and how, conversely, discouragement can cause it to fall off.

The amount of force exerted by the subject is indicated in the record by the length and firmness of the lines. At starting, Dr.

Goddard patted the boy on the shoulder and exclaimed heartily that he expected him to break all the records. The pencil of the indicator recorded the effect of this stimulation in long, firm lines, which, however, after a time began to run down. Then Dr. Goddard cried out enthusiastically that "that was fine, splendid," and the pencil instantly shot up to a higher point than had been achieved before. Gradually, however, the lines shortened again. Once more Dr. Goddard administered encouragement, and once more the pencil shot upward in quick response. When the lines began to decrease the third time, the doctor shook his head gravely, sighed and remarked, "poor, very poor. I'm afraid he can't go on." The boy's face fell, but he made an heroic attempt to move the pencil. A faint wiggle showed on the paper, but that was all—nor was he able once more after that to produce a single long line.

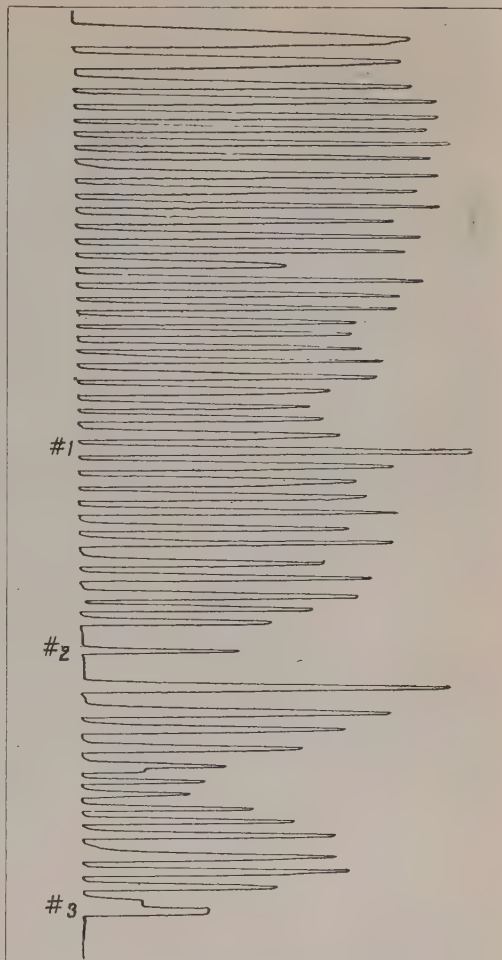
The spirit in which the work is carried on is beautifully expressed in this verse from Whittier's "Agassiz," hanging over Dr. Goddard's desk:

"We are groping here to find
What the hieroglyphics mean,
What the thought that underlies
Nature's making and disguise,
What it is that hides beneath
Blight and bloom and birth and death."

"When we consider the incalculable importance to the future of studies like these," Dr. Goddard said to me, "we can no longer look upon these poor, afflicted little ones of ours as pure waste. They seem given to us to study. We cannot make scientifically accurate studies upon normal children; they go too fast for us; but in the slow development of the sub-normal, we have just the opportunity we need for noting with the necessary slowness and caution all the various processes of unfolding life. And out of these studies we may at last evolve a true science of eugenics."

The Training School is not a State institution except in that the State pays for those of its wards who are sent there, but is supported by an association of some 200 private persons. It takes both paid and free pupils, the latter being supported out of a free fund.

The land not otherwise used is given over to intensive scientific farming, an experiment in grapes being conducted under the supervision of the United States Department of Agriculture, and one in peaches under the New Jersey State Station. This not only furnishes the institution with many of its necessary supplies but gives employment to



A RECORD OF THE "ERGOGRAPH"

(First encouragement at No. 1; fatigue at No. 2, followed by repeated stimulation; exhaustion at No. 3)

large numbers of its grown-up pupils. Indeed, practically all the labor for the shops and barns, the laundry, cannery and powerhouse, as well as for the farm, orchards, vineyard and truck gardens, is furnished by adult pupils who are thus rendered self-sustaining while still kept under institutional control.

E. R. Johnstone, superintendent of the institution, is one of those men who seem divinely appointed to their work in the world. His name, like that of Vineland, is associated with all that is most authoritative and at the same time most advanced in the training of the mentally defective. He is lecturer on this subject at the New York School of Philanthropy, and conducts a summer course at the Training School for teachers who wish to fit themselves especially for work with retarded and defective children.



A white cedar pole, untreated with preservatives, showing decay after about three years of service



A creosoted pine pole, showing no decay after more than eighteen years of service

ADDING YEARS TO THE LIFE OF TELEPHONE POLES

GETTING THE MOST OUT OF OUR WOOD PRODUCTS

BY MARY BURCHARD ORVIS

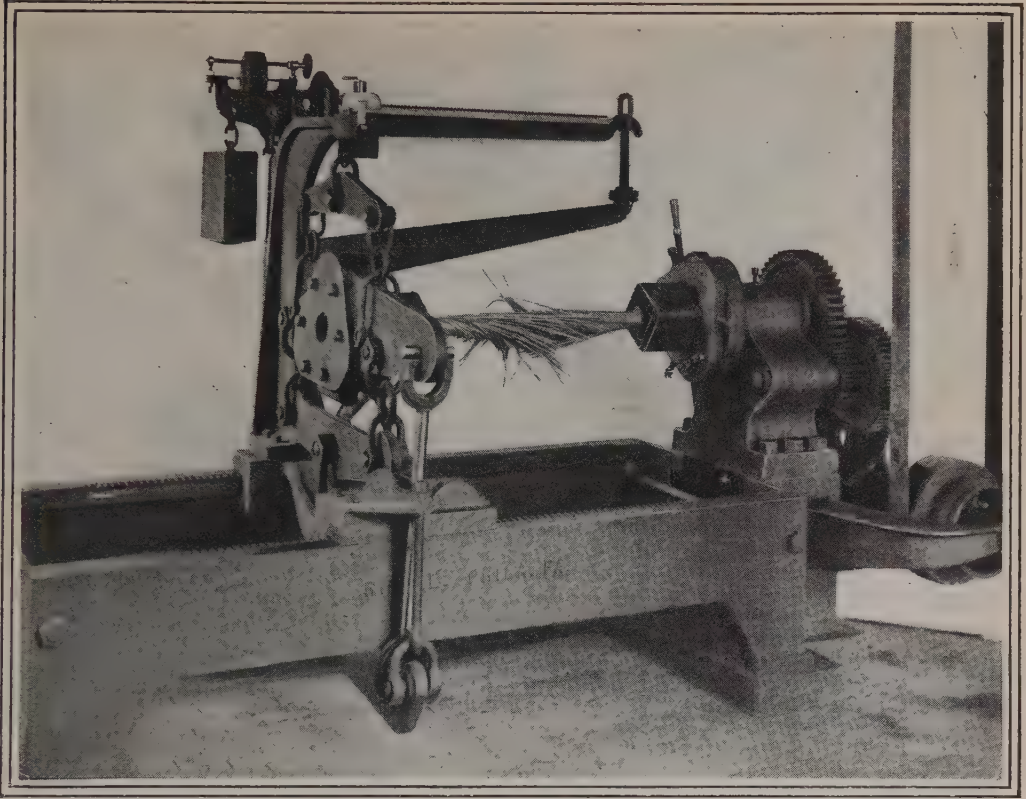
THE nation has heard a great deal in the last ten years about the necessity for protecting its forests against the attacks of fire, wind, disease, and pest (to say nothing of the "special interests"). It has come to realize that its wasteful methods of lumbering are an added menace that can only result in a wood famine, unless steps are taken to prevent such a calamity. All this has been repeatedly emphasized, but less has been said of the waste that is taking place under our present methods of using the wood *after it leaves the forest*. Yet the Forest Service has estimated that 49 per cent. of the logs that reach the sawmill is lost in the form of slabs, trimmings, edgings, sawdust, and bark. In addition to this mill waste, forest products are subject to the ravages of decay, fire, insects, and marine borers, when put into commercial use, to the extent of about 740,000,000 cubic feet annually.

THE FOREST PRODUCTS LABORATORY

The elimination of this waste in wood products is the problem of the United States

Forest Products Laboratory, which aims to use the whole tree, as long as possible. It does not conduct mysterious experiments, with vague theoretical results that are of no interest to the layman. While its methods are most scientific, its actual work is intensely practical and is of immense value to every consumer of wood, from the user of fence posts to the builder of bridges. The laboratory seeks to find uses for woods now being wasted, to improve present methods of seasoning and handling them, to lengthen their serviceable life, to find satisfactory substitutes for those now becoming scarce, and to substitute other materials for products now made of wood.

The laboratory was dedicated at Madison, Wisconsin, June 4, 1910. It is run in co-operation with the University of Wisconsin, which furnishes the buildings, yard space, heat, light, water, gas, and power required for operation. The United States Forest Service pays all other operating expenses, and, in return for what the State furnishes, presents lectures on forestry at the university



THE TORSION TEST APPLIED TO A STICK OF HICKORY IN THE TIMBER-TESTING DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FOREST PRODUCTS LABORATORY

and allows the students and faculty the use of its laboratory, which is the only one of its kind in the world. Wisconsin secured the laboratory only after a big fight had been made for it by several other States and universities, all of which made generous offers of land and buildings. Just why Wisconsin won out, no one knows, though it was popularly supposed that the early stand of President Van Hise for conservation was an important factor. Perhaps it was because of the location of the university at Madison, which is a railroad center in a lumbering State.

McGarvey Cline is director of the laboratory and has the difficult task of coördinating and standardizing the work of the different departments; he has two assistants, Mr. H. F. Weiss, and Mr. H. S. Bristol, who aid him in passing upon all plans and projects undertaken by the laboratory. The total number of employees is fifty-five, thirty-three of them being technical men recruited from the professions of forestry, engineering, and chemistry. These men, together with the other employees, are chosen in accordance with civil service regulations.

The building, which cost about \$55,000, is of red brick with a concrete construction. Adjoining it is a lumber yard and sawmill which make not only the accurate specimens required for experiments, but all the furniture for the building. Branch tracks bring supplies directly from the railroad, which passes near the laboratory.

The technical work of the laboratory is done by the following departments: Timber Physics, Timber Tests, Wood Preservation, Wood Distillation, Wood Pulp, and Chemistry.

TIMBER PHYSICS

The section of Timber Physics studies the structure and physical properties of wood and how they are affected by different methods of seasoning. It also endeavors to correlate the microscopic structure of the various species with their uses. At present this department is coöperating with the Pioneer Pole and Shaft Company, which owns mills all over the country, by superintending the installation of a dry-kiln plant at Cairo, Illinois, for the company. The implement and vehicle industries

also have a problem which this section is trying to solve, in the susceptibility of hickory to the attack of wood-borers. These pests destroy large quantities of the wood which is stored up for use in axles, spokes, etc. The remedy consists in finding a quick process of seasoning the hickory, which now takes years to dry, so that these borers cannot get a chance to do their evil work.

TIMBER TESTS

The mechanical properties of wood, such as strength, stiffness, toughness, and hardness, are the qualities studied in the Timber Testing Department. The tests are applied by means of loading machines which determine the proper working stresses to be used in timber structure. For example, the dead load apparatus makes a long, slow test on timbers for bridges and buildings. There are also the impact, the static bending, and the repetitive loading tests, and one that is carried on by compression. The effects of different methods of seasoning, preserving, and fireproofing, upon the mechanical properties are studied. This department is trying to determine the influence of knots, checks, and other defects of structural timbers, so that they may be graded for the use of architects, engineers, and lumbermen.

A series of tests is being made on samples of all of the commercial woods of the United States, for determining their mechanical properties with a view to finding substitutes for woods now becoming scarce. The apparatus and time required for the vast number of tests and analyses are so expensive that only the Government can afford to carry them on, yet results are obtained that are of the greatest value to architects, engineers, and manufacturers of wood products, to say nothing of all users of boxes and crates.

WOOD PRESERVATION

Wood preservation consists in impregnating wood with substances to retard decay and ward off the attacks of insects and marine borers. The laboratory is equipped with a fungus pit, in which wood treated with preservatives is placed and its resistance to the fungi tested. In addition to studying the preservatives, the laboratory takes up the problem of getting them into the wood in the best way. This class of work deals mainly with the design and operation of machinery for forcing the preservatives into the different species and forms of timber.

The Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad is coöperating with this department in an interesting experiment, which consists in treating ties with preservatives and then placing them in a test track to be laid between Milwaukee and Minneapolis. The Forest Service will inspect it from time to time and keep careful records as to the efficiency of the different processes used. The stake here is public safety, as well as economy for the road and timber conservation for the nation.

Another big problem of this department is the determining of specifications for wood preservatives to be used in treating materials for block pavements, telephone poles, and railroad ties. At present great difficulty arises from the lack of knowledge as to what kinds of preservatives should be used and the public, as well as contractors, often suffers as a result.

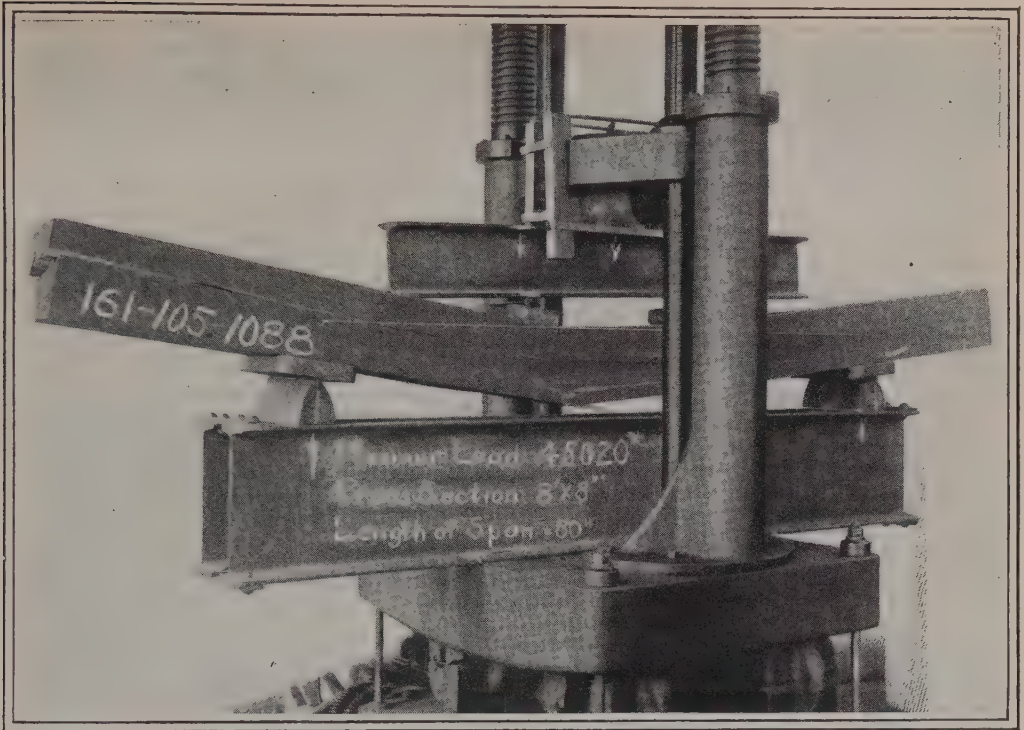
An experiment on piling is another interesting one that is being carried on by this department. It consists in treating the wood and then placing it in the Gulf of Mexico and the bay of California, where the water is infested with toredo, a worm-like mollusk, that does great damage to wood. Still other tests have been made on materials to be used in the construction of silos. Numerous other tests are also being made; in fact this one branch of the laboratory is doing work that materially affects six great industries,—railroading, shipping, mining, electrical communication, street-paving, and farming.

WOOD DISTILLATION

Wood distillation has for its problem the practicability of securing by-products of commercial value from the various forms of wood waste. It studies what products can be secured from the different woods, the refining of the crude products, and the design and operation of machinery best adapted to their production. It bears directly upon the problem of waste, and means economy for the manufacturer and in national resources, for it aims at finding a use for everything that comes from mill and forest. Those by-products of the greatest commercial value are alcohol, acetates, turpentine, and wood creosote.

CHEMISTRY

Wood chemistry is closely allied to distillation, as it, too, is concerned with the by-products. It is making a special study of methods of producing rosin and turpentine, since the processes now employed are very



THE STATIC BENDING TEST ON BEAMS

wasteful to standing timber. An effort is being made to find a substitute for the long-leaf pine of the South, which is the main source of our turpentine supply. Since one tree lasts only four years as a producer of turpentine, it may easily be seen that the supply cannot keep up with the demand for this species of tree. But it has been learned that the Western yellow pine can be utilized in the same way as the Southern and the Forest Service is carrying on experiments in California and Arizona, to determine how much rosin and turpentine can be obtained in one year from a Western pine. There is also the possibility of using other conifers of the West.

One important work that is being done is the classifying of the different kinds of creosote obtained from tars, as to their chemical and physical properties. At present the United States is importing most of its higher grades of preserving oil from Europe, because its own tar-paper industry consumes most of the coal tar by-products, of which creosote is one. The Forest Service is endeavoring to obviate the necessity of importing creosote, and is testing about two hundred different tars obtained from coal, wood, and oil gas plants. The samples are shipped to the laboratory, whose business it is to see which ones

will yield the best preservatives when distilled. When the experiments have been completed, a report will be issued that will be invaluable to consumers of creosote in the United States.

A very interesting branch of the work of this department is the production of ethyl alcohol from material that would otherwise be wasted. This alcohol, which is the same as grain alcohol, is fermented from sugars produced by the action of acids on wood fiber. The process makes use of the waste of forest and sawmill. The Forest Service has estimated that of the volume of trees cut in the United States for lumber, 25 per cent. is left in the woods, as culled logs, tree-tops, and stumps; 16.5 per cent. is wasted in slabs, trimmings, etc., 10.5 per cent. in sawdust, and 9.8 per cent. in bark. This makes the startling total of 62 per cent.—utterly wasted. If the process of distilling alcohol is perfected, however, this enormous waste will cease, and instead of a small part, nearly the whole tree will be utilized.

WOOD PULP

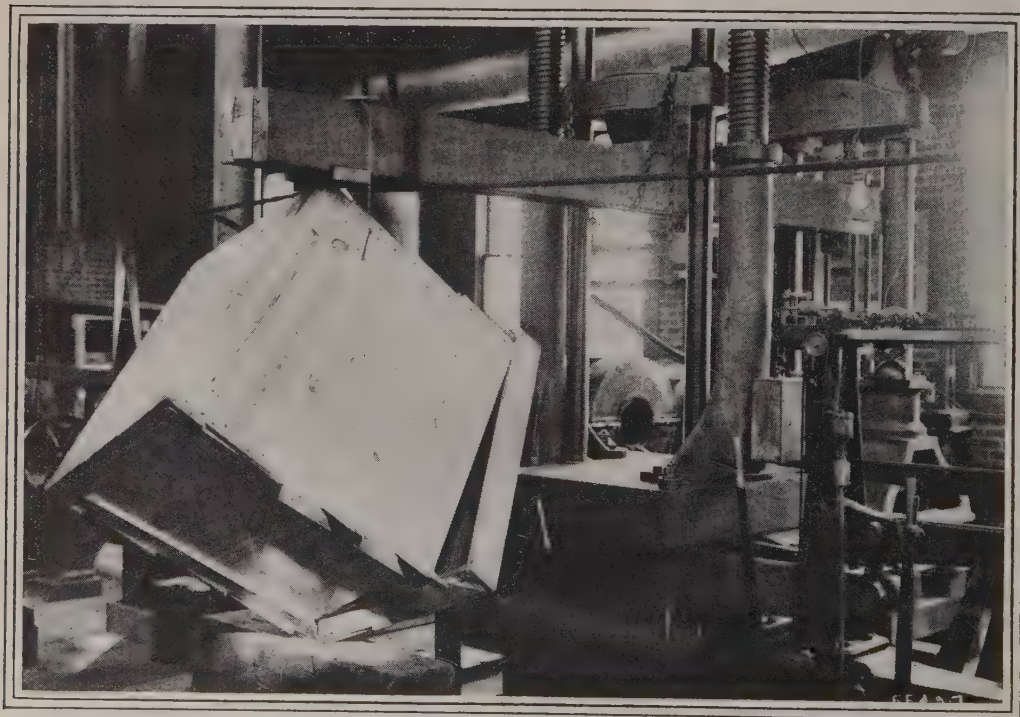
The Wood Pulp department is concerned with the paper industry, which ranks fifth in the United States in the value of product.

The total capital invested in the industry is about \$200,000,000 and the wages paid to American workmen nearly \$140,000,000 annually. This huge industry is making alarming inroads upon our supply of spruce, which is far too valuable as a structural timber for us to allow it to be entirely used up in the manufacture of paper. The aim of the laboratory here, as in other branches of the work, is to find a cheaper substitute, and to prevent the destruction of an important wood. The laboratory has a miniature pulp and paper mill, which is making experiments in the use of other woods than spruce, such as hemlock, and the scrubby "jack pine," which is found in large quantities in Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. Until recently this tree was looked upon as a "forest weed" and considered worthless commercially on account of its short life when cut and put to structural use.

Congress recognized the importance of the pulp and paper work when it appropriated \$30,000 for a branch laboratory at Wausau, Wisconsin, the purpose of which is "To determine if it is possible to produce a commercial grade of ground wood from other species of wood than spruce, which will be suitable for the production of news, wrapping and other cheaper grades of paper." The Wausau

laboratory is coöperating with the different paper companies of Wisconsin, which are represented by a committee from the National Pulp and Paper Association. The woods to be used experimentally are, the yellow birch, white birch, maple, poplar, jack pine, and hemlock. Success in substituting them for spruce will prolong the supply of raw material for the paper industry indefinitely; and that means, not only conservation, but cheaper paper for the people of America.

The importance of the work that is being carried on by the Forest Products Laboratory hardly needs further demonstration. It almost seems as if the work of any one department would justify the outlay for the whole laboratory. Yet in addition to getting material results, the staff aims to be of all possible service to societies and associations interested in its work, and coöperates with all organizations which desire to use the resources of the laboratory. Recognizing that the actual value of the laboratory depends upon the practical results which it obtains, the Forest Service invites the support and coöperation of all men who are in intimate association with the commercial problems of the wood-using industries.



TESTING A BOX

TRYING TO SOLVE THE WORLD'S PROBLEMS OF RACE

BY SAINT NIHAL SINGH

WHITHER is humanity being led by the demand of the yellow, brown, and black races that the "white" folk treat them in accordance with the Golden Rule?



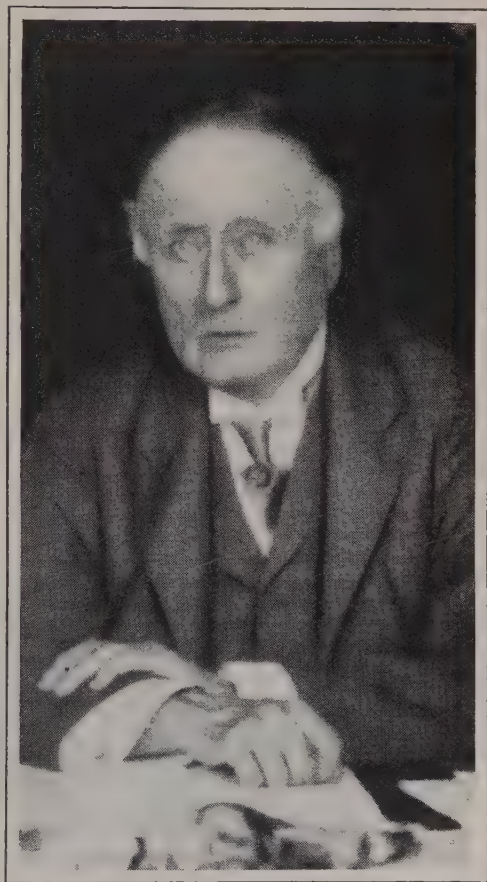
DR. FELIX ADLER, OF NEW YORK
(Who originated the idea of the Races Congress)

Some thinkers would have us believe that a tremendous conflict of color is impending.

But there are those who realize that the world is moving away from war and racial strife, not toward it; and believing this, they desire to see all questions of dissension harmonized, and Easterner and Westerner, colored and white, finally embrace one another in a fraternal spirit.

A select group of such people, coming from fifty lands, representing twenty-four governments, twenty universities, and 160 associations, including the presidents of over thirty parliaments, twelve British pro-consuls and eight British Premiers, the majority of the members of the Permanent Court of

Arbitration, most of the delegates of the Second Hague Conference, fifty colonial Bishops, 130 professors of international law, the bulk of the membership of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, the leading anthropologists and sociologists of the world, and many other distinguished personages, altogether comprising a total of 1100 active members, 1000 passive members, and 300 delegates, under the name of the Universal Races Congress, held its meetings, lasting four days from July 26th to July 29th, inclusive, in the big assembly hall of the University of London. It was called forth with



RT. HON. LORD WEARDALE, PRESIDENT OF THE RACES CONGRESS



DR. W. E. B. DU BOIS
(Atlanta Univ.)

PROF. EARL FINCH
(Wilberforce Univ.)

DR. FRANZ BOAS
(Columbia Univ.)

DR. PAUL S. REINSCH
(Wisconsin Univ.)

DR. C. A. EASTMAN
(American Indian)

SOME OF THE EMINENT MEMBERS OF THE FIRST UNIVERSAL RACES



DR. DE NAVRATIL
(Kolozsvár Univ., Hungary)

the object of discussing "in the light of science and the modern conscience, the general relations subsisting between the peoples of the West and those of the East, between so-called white and so-called colored peoples, with a view to encouraging between them a fuller understanding, the most friendly feelings, and a heartier coöperation." In order to make its deliberations a success, it was decided that the assemblage should not be purely scientific in point of merely stating facts without recording judgments; and while sympathetic toward all and avoiding all expression of bitterness toward governments, peoples or factions, it should not bar those who took part in its discussions from expressing their reasonable praise or blame of existing political parties and religious agencies.

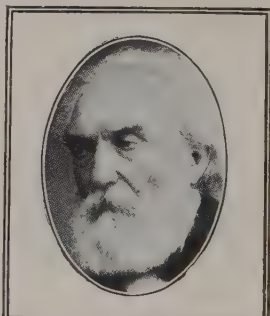
The idea of organizing such a convention originated in the fertile brain of Dr. Felix Adler, Professor of Social Ethics in Columbia University and the founder of the Ethical Culture Society. Speaking in 1906, at a meeting of the International Union of Ethical Societies assembled at Eisenach, he de-



GUSTAVE SPILLER
(Organizer of the Congress)



GENERAL LÈGITIME
(Ex-President of Haiti)



DR. GIUSEPPE SERGI
(Italian scientist)



DR. LUSCHAN
(Berlin Univ.)

HENRI LA FONTAINE
(Belgian jurist)

PROF. FOUILÉE
(Institut de France)

DR. A. YASTCHENKO
(Dorpat Univ.)

ALFRED FRIED
(Vienna journalist)



ISRAEL ZANGWILL (Jewish author) SIR CHARLES BRUCE (Late Gov. Mauritius) DR. J. S. MACKENZIE (Cardiff) SIR H. JOHNSTON (Student of the negro) DR. T. W. RHYDS DAVIDS (Univ. of Manchester)

CONGRESS, HELD AT LONDON DURING THE LAST WEEK OF JULY



DR. MOJOLA AGBABI
(Niger Delta Mission)

clared that the modern conscience had not kept pace with the racial problems confronting the world to-day, and that a congress should be convened with a view to finding the way out of the labyrinth of prejudiced opinion in which all races are lost. Almost from that day to the time fixed for the sessions, Mr. Gustave Spiller, the honorary organizer, with the aid of a strong executive council, international in its personnel, with headquarters in the British metropolis, actively undertook the task of sending propagandist literature and invitations to the four corners of the globe, requesting men and women of world-wide fame to contribute thoughtful papers on inter-racial problems, and as many of them as possible to support the congress by personally taking part in its deliberations. In some countries, the United States for one, committees were formed to push the scheme.

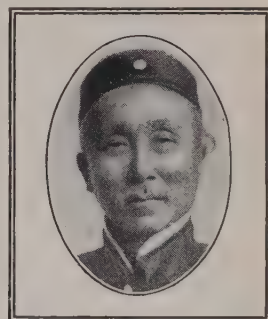
It is not within the scope of this article to report the speeches delivered at the various sessions of the Congress and the discussions that followed them; or to attempt a statement of the scientific theories that



MRS. RHYDS DAVIDS
(Indian philosophy)



DR. GENCHI KATO
(Tokyo University)



WU TING FANG
(Chinese diplomat)



HADJI YAHYA
(Teheran)

BABA BHARATI
(Hindu sage)

THE GAEKWAR OF
BARODA

J. TENGO JABAVU
(South Africa)

DR. SEAL
(India)

claimed or disclaimed a common origin for the different races and explained their present relative superiority or otherwise as being due to environment and climatic influences. The aim is to set forth from an Oriental's—and aye, a colored man's—point of view how far the modern conscience really has progressed toward racial harmony, and what forces are bringing this about, as disclosed by the public debates of those who composed the membership of the Universal Races Congress, and private conversations with them.

The central fact is that while scientific theories every day more and more converge to the monogenetic origin of mankind; while the color of the skin is now authoritatively explained to be not the hall-mark of superiority or inferiority but the result of climatic influences; while it has been demonstrated that all people are capable of the highest evolution—a scientific statement corroborated by experienced British pro-consuls: yet these theories in themselves are not giving the prestige to the red, black, yellow, and brown races which they desire. Religion, long before science issued its dictum, laid emphasis upon the common origin of all human beings, and proclaimed the brotherhood of man. But the scientists' theories and the preachers' oracular announcements alike have failed to lift the colored people from the slough of inferiority. Few will affirm that either factor has done nothing toward raising the status of the so-called inferior races but, even the most ardent partisan cannot claim that, singly or combined, they have gone very far in removing the stigma that attaches to certain peoples.

Propinquity, especially such as is established by the immigration of the yellow and brown races into the so-called preserves of the whites, or arising from the presence of the African ex-slaves and their descendants, or from the governmental tutelage of aborigines by the Caucasians, has not, as is well known, resulted in harmony, but, on the contrary, in the United States, Canada, South Africa, and Australia, has been the fruitful cause of discord. Miscegenation springing from such intimate contact, though now pronounced by many learned sociologists to be not the baneful institution that prejudice would have us believe, but a useful instrument for the development of a hardier and brainier race, has, in most cases and most places, only served to fan the flames of animosity. In other circumstances, one would really have expected that such a

meeting and mating of people of diverse colors would have led to a better understanding of one another, and would have brought social amity in its train. If these factors have not worked for good-will amongst nations, what can be expected to do so?

Commercialism: That, in the light of all that was said and done at the Universal Races Congress, seems to be the answer to this question. Or, if that word may grate against the tender susceptibilities of some, it may be said that "enlightened selfishness" is the thread that is to draw and knit the races of the world together.

In this day and age, when distance has been annihilated, no country, even be it Tibet, can lead an existence all its own. No land, no matter how strong a tariff wall it may erect to keep out competition, can shield its market from world competition. Capital, instead of being parochial, already has become international, and daily the circle of its activity is widening. Industries, so long as they are scientifically organized and conducted, are bound to be successful whether they are under the management of Orientals or Occidentals.

To-day, if an Afro-American perfects a useful invention, the white people cannot afford to ignore it as a "nigger" patent; if the Japanese can kill hundreds of thousands of Occidental soldiers with their home-made rifles, guns and powder, and drive to the bottom of the sea the most formidable of the Western dreadnoughts and super-dreadnoughts with ships made in their own dockyards, the West cannot overlook Nippon's progress; if the Celestial can set up modern factories and turn out commercially successful wares, they cannot be condemned because Mongolians manufactured them; if the Hindu shows that he can make better bombs than the Russian terrorist, his ability to work destruction cannot be underrated because of the color of his hide; if the Persian, Egyptian and Turk rise in the commercial firmament, their advance cannot be explained away by the sneering use of such a term as "unspeakable Mohammedans"; and if the native of South Africa can argue or preach better in the Englishman's mother-tongue than the Britisher himself, his accomplishment cannot be laughed out of court. The fact is that a matter-of-fact world cannot afford to give undue heed to senseless prejudices, and more and more the white people are beginning to realize that yearly the colored folks are forging ahead in every department of life. This, is giving a

new status to the erstwhile inferior peoples, as nothing else could do.

It is also dawning upon the white races, to use the words of Sir Charles Bruce, G.C. M.G., late Governor of Mauritius, that "the modern conscience rejects as a fallacy the claim of Western civilization to a monopoly of the capacity of self-government based on an indivisible inter-relationship between European descent, Christianity, and so-called white color." The Japanese for years have been governed under a parliamentary system; China is rapidly taking it up; India has started in that direction; while Turkey and Persia are struggling hard to make the new experiment a success. Moreover, all thinking Europeans are coming to regard autocratically administered empires as debasing to the characters of Occidentals conducting them. Furthermore, Asia is beginning to use that effective instrument, the commercial boycott, to force the West to adopt the golden rule in dealing with Easterners. In its own way, this, too, is setting up a new racial equilibrium—giving a better status to the Asiatics.

Many constructive proposals for stimulating racial comity, that commend themselves as worthy of trial, were submitted to the Congress. It was suggested by Bajindra Nath Seal, M.A., Ph.D., Principal of the Maharaja of Cooch Behar's College, Cooch Behar, India, that a World's Humanity League, with branches, committees and bureaus in different countries, should be organized, and that congresses should be held in various centers under its auspices to enable Orientals and Occidentals to disseminate cultural ideas, and to promote mutual understanding among members of different races, peoples and nationalities; and that an international journal of comparative civilization, which shall have for its object the application of the biological, sociological and historic sciences to the problems of present-day legislation and administration, should be published to serve as a medium for the exchange of views. He also recommended the endowment of Professors of Oriental Civilization and Culture in Western universities and academies, to be held by Orientals from the countries concerned, and in the East—a suggestion upheld by Dr. Ferdinand Tönnies, Professor of Sociology in the University of Kiel, Germany.

Mr. Gustave Spiller, the Honorary Organizer of the Congress, pointed out that anthro-

pologists, sociologists, and scientific thinkers could confer a great blessing on humanity by expounding the fundamental fallacy involved in taking a static instead of a dynamic, a momentary instead of a historic, a local instead of a comparative view of race characteristics, and that such teaching could be conveniently introduced into geography and history lessons and also into institutions for training teachers, diplomats, administrators, missionaries, etc. Dr. Felix Adler, the father of the Congress, advocated that close attention should be paid to any experiments that have, up to now, been conducted in the schooling of primitive communities; the conditions of success, where a measure of success has been achieved, should be noted; and new experiments of this kind should be undertaken on a large scale. He also declared that the greatest stress should be laid, in the case of those who come into direct influential contact with foreign groups, of a detailed study by them of the people to whom they are sent—of their customs, manners, laws, literature, religion, and art; and that it should be the aim of those who direct such studies to engender in the students a generous appreciation of all that is fine and worthy in the character and culture of the alien peoples; and that it must be borne in mind that only friendliness will secure a hearing, and only those who sincerely appreciate the excellent qualities of foreigners can help them overcome the deficiencies and lead them along the path of further progressive development. More than one person echoed the thought expressed by Professor Giuseppe Sergi, of Rome, who pleaded that among savage tribes no violence should be used in order to make them change their customs; but useful arts and crafts, humane forms of living, and respect for human life by beginning to respect it, could advantageously be introduced; and all urged the sympathetic treatment of the backward races. Several writers of papers, among them Dr. Wu Ting Fang, the great Chinese diplomat who, until recently, represented his country at Washington, D. C., proposed that an international language should be evolved for universal use. At the last session it was decided to form in London a permanent international committee which will affiliate national committees in all parts of the world to carry on this propaganda, and to convene congresses on different continents every few years, it gives promise of continuing its useful work.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS

THE laws under which employers are required to pay damages for injuries to workmen differ widely in many States of the Union; but the tendency everywhere seems to be to increase the responsibility of the employer and to diminish that of the worker. The unfortunate workman, often maimed for life, naturally secures the sympathy of judge and jury; and there is a growing custom to consider the fault or negligence of any employee or the defect in a machine to be something that the employer ought not to permit and for which, consequently, he is financially responsible to his employees. Now there are accidents and accidents. It is known that men deliberately place themselves in positions where they are likely to receive injury for the purpose of securing the advantages of compensation therefor. Writing in the *Engineering Magazine*, Mr. William Mayo Venable maintains that the "danger that men will take advantage of any general system of compensating the injured, by injuring themselves so as to secure such compensation, is one of the things to be avoided in any system designed for the proper compensation of the worthy unfortunate." While there are few injuries "which could not be prevented by greater care on the part of the employee, or by the employer, were he able to know what every employee was doing, and to control him, at every hour of the day," there are casualties which "are not the fault of the employer, or of the employee, or of the industry, but simply misfortunes." For example, a man sharpening a saw may get a piece of steel blown into his eye; another may strain his shoulder while lifting; and still another may get hit in the eye, while working, with a pebble thrown by a boy at a bird. Then, again, it is often difficult to discriminate between carelessness and lack of judgment and stupidity. Mr. Venable asserts that in case of an accident to an employee whose employer carries liability insurance, the present procedure is as follows:

As soon as the accident is reported to him, the employer summons a physician, who renders the proper medical attention to the injured man at once, and usually only once. This is called "first

aid." The employer then prepares a statement of the accident, records the names of all witnesses, and sends the statement to the insurance company. He drops the name of the injured party from his payroll, and leaves him to his own resources thereafter until he is able to return to work.

And he very truly remarks that,

whatever the law, our moral nature revolts against the theory that a man, incapacitated for work by some injury received while working at a useful calling, shall be left totally unprovided with the means of support. We must consider it proper to provide by law to meet the necessities of this condition, and not to leave it to the poor man's relatives, or church, or fraternal organization to handle the case, or, as too often happens, leave the man suffering from the lack of physical necessities.

Mr. Venable considers that we should obtain, if possible, a system which "while not relieving an employer of the expense arising from injuries which are the result of his negligence, should not charge him alone for the individual misfortune of any employee." It should also "relieve the individual worker of the results of accidents owing to the risks of his calling, or the carelessness of his fellows, and it should be chary of relieving him of the consequences of his own neglect." The following articles (which we condense) are offered by Mr. Venable as "suggesting the principal ideas which should be embodied in legislation on compensation for injured workers."

ARTICLE I

The industries of the State shall be classified into groups, according to the natural risks of injury to employees . . . Each group of industries shall be obliged to provide compensation sufficient to cover medical attention to all employees injured while in the discharge of their duties; also to compensate employees for wages lost while idle because of such injury, in case of short periods of disability, and to provide partial support and suitable employment for those injured so seriously as to be permanently disabled from their former callings.

ARTICLE II

The cost of this compensation when the employer was not negligent shall be met by a tax imposed upon the industries of the group . . . assessed against all establishments in the State where the industry is carried on, and shall be collected from the employers. . . .

ARTICLE III

When an employer has been negligent he shall be directly liable for damages resulting from his negligence, in addition to the aforementioned tax . . . Negligence is failure to comply with every requirement of law for the safeguarding of employees.

ARTICLE IV

A Commission shall be established, selected under proper safeguards to secure honest men, and charged with the following named duties and powers:

It shall (a) fix the rates, from year to year, at which the various groups of industries shall be taxed . . . (b) have the power to determine the compensation to be paid each applicant for relief on account of injury . . . (c) be furnished with reports of all accidents in all industrial establishments, by the persons conducting the business . . . Failure to report an injury shall be punishable by a fine. (d) . . . have authority to investi-

gate any accident at any time . . . (e) Whenever . . . any accident resulting in injury to an employee was brought about by negligence or fault on the part of an employer . . . the Commission may demand from that employer suitable compensation for the employee, which compensation shall cover not only the financial loss of the employee, but also reimbursement for suffering.

ARTICLE V

An injured employee . . . once having placed his case in the hands of the Commission, shall abide by the judgment of the Commission and not bring action against the employer through other channels.

ARTICLE VI

No person shall be estopped from proceeding to bring suit against a negligent employer directly, if he elects not to avail himself of the services of the Commission . . .

AMERICAN POETS—AN ESTIMATE FOR GERMANS

THE Exchange Professor, it seems, is now to be followed by the Exchange Poet. Germany has already sent a number of literary ambassadors to our shores. These include Karl Hauptmann, Ernest von Wolzogen, and Ludwig Fulda, the last named being the first exchange poet. George Sylvester Viereck, the author of "Nineveh and Other Poems," recently delivered a lecture at the University of Berlin in which he made himself the champion of such a literary exchange. Mr. Viereck, as a member of the Executive Committee of the newly founded Poetry Society of America, insists that the United States should exercise the principle of reciprocity with regard to her poets. He is not blind to the fact that our poets are almost as unknown in our own country as in Europe. "American poetry," he exclaims in his lecture which is reprinted in full in *Rundschau Zweier Welten*, the German-American vehicle of the intellectual exchange, "needs missionaries in America no less than in Europe. America to-day, he insists, has more than half a hundred singers who strike a note of their own. Our poets, it seems, are more frequently inspired by ethical ideas than by primitive human emotions. The American poet, in rebellion against the materialism around him, addresses himself preëminently to the spirit. The erotic note especially is almost entirely absent.

American poet dallies too long in the chilly region of ethical speculation. He betrays beauty for truth. His language, moreover, is too artificial, too remote from the parlance of the average man. Even an educated man cannot enjoy a book of verses underneath a bough without consulting his Webster.



GEORGE SYLVESTER VIERECK
(German-American bilingual poet)

If the Old World poets are apt to lose themselves in the mazes of psychopathic experience, the

An exchange of poets, Mr. Viereck pleads, would broaden and deepen our vision. At the same time, Europe would learn that we can produce not only skyscrapers, but also poets.

In his attempt to interpret American poetry Mr. Viereck divides our poets into four groups. His classification for the first time brings Poe and Whitman, those two solitary figures, vitally into touch with the developments of American poetry as a whole.

First come the poets who, like Whitman, cling to the soil, singers of comradeship whose fargoing democracy extending to all creatures reaches its logical culmination in some form of Pantheism. Second are the poets headed by Poe who stand apart from time and space, aristocrats and esthetic egotists without local association. Third, there are those poets who follow in the footsteps of Longfellow, Whittier and other American "classics," conventional artists in verse who are neither democrats nor aristocrats, but who constitute, so to speak, the poetical "middle classes." The fourth group embraces the anarchists and rebels, disciples of Poe and Whitman, who have listened to the strains of Baudelaire and of Swinburne, to whom passion is the ultimate secret of being and whose literary realm is a neighbor to what Europe calls "decadent" and "modern." In this group we find several immigrants and their immediate descendants who have liberated themselves from the bane of Puritanism. But even these poets are unable to silence in themselves the ethical curiosity characteristic of all our poets. . . . An important appendix to American poetry is furnished by the German American and the Yiddish poets. . . . Yiddish poetry, like the Yiddish press and the Yiddish theater, are growing in importance. Playhouses where jargon is supreme flourish where once the German theater stood in its zenith. Every literature written in an alien tongue in America, however, is a blossom doomed to extinction.

Elaborating his classification, Mr. Viereck then proceeds to group the poets according to his classification. Whitman he calls "a great poetic personality" but "not a great poet." "He is not as spontaneous or naïve as he pretends to be." His "Children of Adam" are "disquisitions on sex, not the authentic poetry of passion." There is, however, "enough greatness in him to force us upon our knees." He is democratic, speculative and pantheistic. His immediate followers are Horace Traubel "a moon circling about a planet into which he is doomed to fall back" and J. William Lloyd. The greatest poets in the spirit of Whitman, but emancipated from him in form, are Richard Hovey, Bliss Carman, and Edwin Markham. Closely related to this group are Charles G. D. Roberts, Edith Thomas, Arthur Upson, Richard Burton and Frederic Lawrence Knowles.

These poets are full of vitality. We find in them the same scientific spirit which the Germans and the English admire in their scholars, such as Haeckel, Darwin and Spencer. There is, especially, in this group, little of the pseudo-romanticism which makes a plaything of art. These poets transfer their love from the individual to all nature. They are not only poets, but servants of mankind and of the commonwealth. They seek the human, not like so many of their European brothers, the all-too-human

Poe and his followers sharply contrast with the Whitmanites. Their songs ring out of space, out of time. Poe, likewise, tends to mystical speculation. Mr. Viereck finds in him also, a tendency to intellectual pretence. "But as long as he remains in his own realm of rhythmic beauty, he is more infallible than the Pope."

There is a certain irony in the fact that, in spite of his aristocratic exclusiveness, Poe is more popular than Whitman. Every schoolboy knows at least three or four of Poe's poems by heart. It seems that the people take more delight in receiving their intellectual food out of the well-manicured hands of aristocracy than out of the brawny fist of labor. Poe has no pupils, but we can trace his spirit in a long line of intellectual aristocrats and esthetes who dwell apart from the world and whose only faith is in beauty. Thus George Santayana, as Jessie Rittenhouse observes in her remarkable study of "The Younger American Poets," might as well live in a monastery or on some lonely island as at Harvard in the Twentieth Century. Louise Imogen Guiney and Lizette Woodworth Reese are equally secluded from their time and surroundings. George E. Woodberry is cold and academic; he never finds his way to the heart. He is the philosopher and the teacher rather than the poet. He loves Beauty, but cannot seize her. William Vaughn Moody's poetry also leaves one with a curious sense of coldness and intellectual aloofness.

Cale Young Rice, Josephine Preston Peabody, Olive Tilford Dargan and many others are also grouped with these poets. The third group, the poetical "middle classes," include such names as Stedman, Gilder, Aldrich and Van Dyke. Mr. Viereck finds himself most in sympathy with the last group, the poets of lyric rebellion. Here he names "the first American decadent," Francis Saltus, Elsa Barker, Ella Wheeler Wilcox, Theodosia Garrison and many of those whose work appears in a little anthology recently published "The Younger Choir." Mr. Viereck further discusses the work of George Sterling, Herman Scheffauer, Leonard Van Noppen, Ludwig Lewisohn, Reginald Wright Kauffman, Sarah Teasdale, Witter Bynner, Herman Hagedorn, William Ellery Leonard, Charles Hanson Towne, etc.

These poets are the true heirs of Whitman and of Poe. They have inherited Poe's masterly tech-

nique and have added to it the element of passion which he lacks. From Whitman they have inherited his Americanism, which makes itself strongly felt in his fantastic and impressionistic pictures of American cities. They dare to approach the great problems which fascinated Whitman, and

they possess at the same time a plastic sense absent in him. They are in touch with literary movements in Europe, but, unlike many modern Frenchmen and Germans, they select their themes not exclusively from the charmed circle of decadent art. They are the lyric insurgents.

PRISON EXPERIMENTS IN HUMANITY

OF the many 'conventional methods of dealing with prisoners, both in America and on the other side of the Atlantic, it cannot be said that any of them has been eminently successful, either from the reformatory or the preventative point of view. The International Prison Congress, which met at Washington in October of last year, while appreciating much that the members saw of American prisons, found that "in less than half of our States was there any real reformatory work done among prisoners," and reference was made to "the bitter inconsistency of our treatment of the rank and file of offenders," our very methods of dealing with them resulting in "breeding and confirming them as criminals." In one of our States—Vermont—there is at least one prison to which this scathing remark does not apply. Here, incredible as it may appear, the inmates are "treated like other human beings; they come and go almost as freely as the members of the jailer's own family;" and "they are made to feel that their imprisonment is designed to improve them as men, and to restore them to social life not only with full self-respect, but with the cordial respect of the community." The jail where this novel plan has been in operation for four years is that of Montpelier; and it must be confessed that the account of it which Mr. Morrison I. Swift contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* contains several paragraphs calculated to make the old-time prison reformers stand aghast. For example, he says:

I spent the greater part of a day talking with the prisoners, first in company with the deputy sheriff and then alone, with full permission to discover opposition to the management if I could. In this way I made the personal acquaintance of the men. Later, on the main street of the city, whom should I meet but five or six of these very prisoners, walking along with smiling faces and a happy air, no more resembling the conventional criminal than did the merchants, workmen, and lawyers with whom they mingled. Here was one of the keys to the mystery. No officer was about, keeping an eye on them; no peculiarity of clothing indicated who they were; they were free to walk off if they pleased and no one at the jail was worrying about them; and, best of all, the citizens of Montpelier, who knew perfectly well that inmates of the county

prison were at all times of the day and evening at large in their midst, were worrying no more about it than were the sheriff and his assistants themselves.

This remarkable innovation in prison practice was the outcome of a State law which reads as follows: "A male prisoner imprisoned in a county jail for being intoxicated, for a breach of the peace, or for being a tramp, may be required to perform not more than ten hours of manual labor within or without the walls of such county jail each day of such imprisonment, except on Sundays and holidays." At the time of the passage of this law there were,

on the one hand, hundreds of prisoners sitting idle in the county jails eating the State into debt, and many were being transported at great expense from all parts of the State to the House of Correction at Rutland; and on the other hand, young and impressionable offenders were being carried off to Rutland with more hardened men, there to receive an education in lawlessness from their experienced associates.

In his application of the new law, the sheriff of Washington county, in which Montpelier is situated, Mr. Frank H. Tracy, was actuated not merely by the desire to save money for the State, but also by a wish to regenerate the prisoners under his care. At first he could get no one to employ the jailmen, so he set them to cutting bushes and wood on his own farm, giving the State fifty cents a day for each and paying the men nothing. The experiment was a grim failure. "Dressed in distinguishing blue overalls and attended by guards, the prisoners did worse each day than the day before." It occurred to the sheriff that the men had no incentive to work: they got nothing out of it. He therefore asked one of them: "If you could have 75 cents for yourself from your work each day, what would you do?" "Try me," was the answer; and the next day this same prisoner went out and worked as well as any free man. This was the beginning of the system under which

every man in ordinary health earns the full laborer's pay of \$1.75 a day, of which seventy-five cents

is his, the sheriff acting as his banker and keeping the accumulation until he leaves the prison, when it is given to him in a lump sum.

The profits accruing to the State have steadily increased. At the close of the fourth year, 1910, they had reached \$6000, while the men's share was more than \$2600. Some of the prisoners were allowed to purchase necessities for their families out of their portion, thus lessening the deprivation of their wives and children due to their imprisonment.

As to the attitude of the working classes toward this form of prison labor Mr. Swift was assured by one of the trade-union leaders, "that there would not be the slightest objection on the part of the unions to any man with a trade exercising it, provided he were given union wages, as for doing common labor he is given the current rate."

The system has succeeded because of the trust reposed in the prisoners, who are made to feel that they are placed upon their honor. This is well illustrated by the following incident:

When a circus visited the city, Sheriff Tracy purchased tickets for as many of the prisoners as desired to go, and sent them off, unattended, to enjoy themselves. Eleven went, the others refusing because they preferred the money they would

earn by helping the farmers, who were then under pressure in the hayfields. It was an excellent chance to run away, for the circus continued till after dark; yet every one of them was back at the jail fifteen minutes after the tent closed, although among the eleven were men with the incentive of a long term to tempt them to escape.

The effect upon the prisoners of the new system can be readily imagined. As a result of their regular habits while under sentence, and owing mainly to their work in the open air, they leave the jail healthier than when they entered it. In many instances the man keeps right on at the same job. But if he desires to go elsewhere, he "has money in his pocket, and not as a shamefaced pauper either." Further, the providing of outdoor work will do more than anything else to combat successfully the ravages of consumption in the jails. Dr. J. B. Ransom of Clinton Prison, Dannemora, N. Y., is an authority for the assertion that "of the 5000 prisoners in New York State alone, one thousand are tubercular." Mr. Swift believes that prison life can be made so "decent, so humane, so upbuilding, interesting, and even inspiring," that for the average convict it will be superior to his existence in the outer world. Why should he run away from it, then?

ITALIAN EMIGRANTS EN ROUTE: A PROPOSED STEERAGE REFORM

THE national conscience of Italy is very much concerned of late with the emigration problem; but reform projects have until now received such inadequate financial support that the results have been somewhat discouraging. As to the aid to be given to the emigrants it is generally admitted that the home government owes its wandering poor preparation in the primary schools, surveillance of the emigration agencies, care on the voyage to North and South America; and in their new country, the establishment of employment offices, mutual aid societies, schools, libraries, etc. The preparatory aid in Italy and the guardian care in America give ample material for study, new projects and parliamentary debates, but the assistance on board the steamers seems to have been neglected, although the expenses of improvements would be light and the results immediate.

Signorina Cesarina Lupati, writing in the *Nuova Antologia*, studies the question of assisting the steerage passengers more effi-

ciently at a minimum cost to the Italian authorities. Under prevailing conditions there is on board every ship a royal commissioner—almost invariably a marine surgeon—sent to protect the rights of the emigrants from possible encroachments on the side of the company, to keep good order and superintend the embarking and landing. After sailing, the commissioner's duties are confined to aiding the ship doctor in promoting hygiene and maintaining discipline. The greater part of his day is free and he is able to amuse himself with the first-class passengers and entertain the ladies. For the purpose of protection against the company, the commissioner's presence would seem superfluous, as the first and second class have no need of championship, and the third even less for the good reason that they form the company's most numerous and constant clientèle, and when landed, the best advertising agents. It is regrettable that this excessive precaution is not expended on the lodging-houses at Naples and Genoa, where



A GANG-PLANK TYPE

the peasants from the interior often spend several days before sailing and arrive at the ship in a half-starved, dirty and dejected state. Several million lire have been waiting for years to be applied to the building of official hôtels to meet this crying need, but it was decided at the commission's last sitting that the idea was impracticable because the emigrants' stay in port is too short to justify the expenditure. The boarding-house harpies will continue to prepare the soil for epidemics and all the other ills to which the emigrants are especially exposed in their crowded quarters below deck.

Signorina Lupati complains that the commissioners do not enforce personal cleanliness, and replies to the objection that there are only six or eight bathrooms for over a thousand people, that by barrack discipline, every emigrant could at least have one bath on board. This reform could be begun by obligatory baths for mothers and children. As regards food the majority fare better on board than at home, but the chief hardship for the better class of emigrants is the dark-brown sacking and cover for the mattresses and the stifling dormitories to which the women and children are sent shortly after sunset. If the payment of twenty lire additional could secure coarse white sheets, it would be a welcome substitute for the "preferred" class at table which only encourages

departure from hardy abstemiousness. Decency would be furthered by the subdivision of the dormitories into four or six beds instead of the present huddled masses of hale and infirm side by side.

The emigrants pass the time that they are not violently ill in complete idleness, some half-somnolent, others gambling and quarreling, but rarely in conversation. Schools have been proposed, but they would prove of little use as the numbers are too great and reading or writing could not be taught in fifteen or twenty days, supposing the pupils always able to attend. But the example of a young second officer suggested to Signorina Lupati the best way to prepare the peasants for their new citizenship even at the eleventh hour. The officer was explaining the compass to an animated group, each of whom took it in his hands with child-like eagerness, and when the officer had gone, all the circle discussed his friendliness and their newly-acquired knowledge. Afterwards, when congratulated on his success, the young man answered that the emigrants were always interested and it pleased him to make up a little for the unfair difference between the second and third classes. Proceeding from this experience, Signorina Lupati proposes a series of conferences which should primarily appeal to the good common sense which is the liveliest faculty of the illiterate. These talks could be held every day in good weather, or if possible, twice a day, to two groups. Without formal pretensions, the instructor could carry out a short program on the necessity of hygiene, on obedience to the stewards and officers' vaccination, superstitions, temperance, respect for women, economy and honesty; personal inquiry as to motives of emigration, name, age, trade and destination; the new country, its population, important cities, customs, language, inhabitants and chief laws concerning foreigners—and finally, how Italy is represented in the new land, the consuls, the ambassador, newspapers, mutual aid and employment societies, the need for absolute respect of the laws of the hospitable country and the duty to Italy that every Italian should make himself respected and welcomed in the place where he is going to become a breadwinner if not a citizen.

As these talks with the emigrants would only take up two hours daily, the task could be entrusted to the commissioners, to whom the government could pay a slight additional salary. Their zeal could be insured by the institution of medals of honor or ad-

vancement by the Emigration Commission, which would first award recompense to the disinterested pioneers of the movement—the young officers of the merchant marine who have devoted their leisure moments to the mitigation of the chief ill—ignorance.

On the sad lack of dignity shown by the emigrants, Signorina Lupati observed that the principal cause was their ignorance of law except the atavistic law of blood-thirstiness—their hostility and suspicion of superiors engendered by the oppression of several generations. That the Western courts of justice do not take in consideration this hereditary burden, but condemn all Italians for each semi-irresponsible act of violence, is

shown by the labor riots in Louisiana and more recently in Brazil. Signorina Lupati closes her humane exposition of the wrongful neglect of her unfortunate countrymen by an appeal to Italy that at least the last days passed in the emigrant ships under her flag floating from the mast should bestow encouragement and strength for the unequal struggle.

When the ship touched the dock and the crowd, eager for deliverance, rushed to the gangway, I saw them—ragged, begrimed—in sullen violence or apathetic stupor unaware of their destiny—I saw them, ashamed for Italy for whom we toil, pray or die—Italy never to be truly glorious and great till she heeds the silent groan from her peasants' bitter lips.

LELEWEL, POLAND'S GREATEST HISTORIAN

POLES all over the world have been commemorating the fiftieth anniversary of the death of Joachim Lelewel, the titan of Polish learning, the celebrated professor, historian, and antiquarian, "one of the greatest of European men of letters in his day and generation, adviser to the leaders of European democracy on the eve of the great year of '48, and counsellor to European royalty." A sketch of Lelewel's career, achievements, and character appears in a recent number of the *Tygodnik Ilustrowany* (the Illustrated Weekly) of Warsaw. The writer of this article, Arthur Sliwinski, tells us that from his earliest years, Lelewel showed "inclinations testifying to an almost universal intellect."

When he was thirteen years old he knew universal history thoroughly, wrote manuals of physics, collected folk songs, devoted himself eagerly to drawing and painting, studied the stars and their constellations, and took an interest in the deep of the sea and the bowels of the earth. In the Piarist boarding school he commenced historical studies designed on a large scale and at the same time translated from the French a Hebrew-Chaldean grammar. At the University of Wilno, which he entered in 1804, the youth's studies embraced mathematics, chemistry, physics, numismatics, Biblical chronology, the history of the Teutonic Knights, and the beginnings of Slavonic history. Although he worked passionately at these studies, he did not hold himself apart from the activities of his fellow-students, but took in them a most active part—arranging colloquies and lectures—and he set a good example to his colleagues with his work, dazzling them by his knowledge, and won their hearts by his upright character and the purity of his sentiments.

In the secret organizations of students at the University of Wilno which were so

largely responsible for the Polish uprising of 1831, Lelewel was one of the moving spirits. As to the objects of the associations, it has been pointed out that

The leading idea of the founders of these literary associations was to influence for good the youths with whom they came in contact at the university and in later life; by their own example and teaching to educate the youth in virtue, in love of study and work, and in patriotism, to the end that the Fatherland should in time have a disciplined and organized army of virtuous and useful citizens.

Of course, these societies soon incurred the enmity of the government at St. Petersburg, when Emperor Alexander I turned reactionary under influences from Berlin and Vienna. For their work in connection with the students' societies, four of the ablest professors at the University of Wilno, including Lelewel, were dismissed. This patriot soon became the "moral director" of the revolution against Russia that broke out on November 29, 1830. "That night at once raised Lelewel—who had spent his life half-buried in the dust of the library and was therefore a man of meditation rather than of action—into the public view as the coming man."

When the revolution was crushed, Lelewel, although condemned to death, managed to escape from the country. He immediately began to work for his beloved Fatherland by means of a propaganda directed from Paris.

He toiled feverishly. He composed proclamations, held conferences with statesmen, entered into relations with the most prominent workers of Europe of that time, and contributed to the formation of the new democratic ideology and the

new social system. Soon he became known, popular, and beloved in democratic Europe and the hated symbol of revolution in the eyes of all the governments. Even the liberal French Government could not bear the sight of him in Paris; and in March, 1833, it ordered him to leave the capital, while two months later it expelled him from France. To the learned Polish exile there were made creditable and advantageous proposals by various universities and learned societies; but Lelewel declined all offers and resolved to earn his livelihood by his pen in seclusion. He went to Brussels, where he spent twenty-eight years at incessant labor and in voluntary poverty. From his poor abode in Brussels Lelewel was dragged when seriously ill by his compatriots in France to Paris, where he died on May 29, 1861.



JOACHIM LELEWEL, THE POLISH HISTORIAN

Lelewel was the author of a number of historical works of importance, but space will permit the printing here of the titles of only the most celebrated of his works on history, legislation, archæology, numismatics and geography: "Poland in the Middle Ages" (1845-52), "A Parallel between Spain and Poland in the 15th, 16th, 17th and 18th Centuries," "History of Poland," "History of the Regeneration of Poland," "Foundations of Universal History," "Ancient History of India," "A Historical Essay on Polish Civil and Criminal Legislation," "Analysis of the Polish Constitutions of 1791, 1807 and

1815," "The Civil Rights of the Polish Peasantry" (Brussels, 1849), "Monuments of the Language and Constitution of Poland" (Warsaw, 1824), "Numismatique du Moyen Age" (2 vols. 1835), "The Discoveries of the Carthaginians and Greeks" (Warsaw, 1829).

THE TWENTY-FIVE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF BUDDHA

A VERY few, if any, in the active, material West, realize that the present year is the 2500th anniversary of what Orientals call Buddha's "attainment of enlightenment." There is some difference of opinion as to the exact date of this anniversary, but learned Hindus have generally agreed that it was the 12th of May last. Since that time there have been celebrations by Buddhists all over the world, and these commemorations will continue until the first of next year. Speaking of the importance of the anniversary, the editor of the *Modern Review*, of Calcutta, says:

On the 12th [of May], in the Sadharan Brahmo Samaj chapel, Calcutta, Babu Krishna Kumar Mitra and Pandit Sitanath Tattwabhusan spoke on the life and teachings of Buddha. Perhaps there were celebrations in other places, too; though nowhere in India did the occasion evoke that enthusiasm and receive that wide recognition of its greatness which it ought to have done. It is sad to reflect that though we often worship jackals, nay, even the merest vermin, we do not do homage to this lion among men. But so far as India is concerned there is no question that the greatest world-

force that she has given birth to has been Buddha. No other son of India has ever wielded a wider spiritual sway over mankind, no other has been so great a civilizer.

A number of articles from English authors appear in the British magazines on the same subject. In the *Hindustan Review*, Professor H. G. Rawlinson has a long analysis of Buddhists and their historical mission. After telling again the story of the great religious founder, the Professor derives from it four chief lessons: First, its intensely practical character. The ideal of the Buddhist religion is (1) to cleanse one's own heart, (2) to love and help our fellow-men. Second, its independence. "Man is man's own savior." Third, its splendid altruism, "love for all men, and the power of inward culture over the human heart. These are the keynotes of the Buddhist faith." Finally, the cosmopolitan character of that faith. Perhaps, he says, if ever the East finds unity and lasting peace, it may be under the great creed which expresses in so universal a form the mighty truths of Indian wisdom.

A GREAT ENGLISH EDITOR

IN the death of Sir Percy Bunting (on July 22) the English people, says Claudius Clear, writing in the *British Weekly* (London), have lost "one of the most amiable and accomplished men of the day, and one who under the gentlest exterior carried a firm purpose, bending all his energies toward the cause of righteousness, purity and truth."

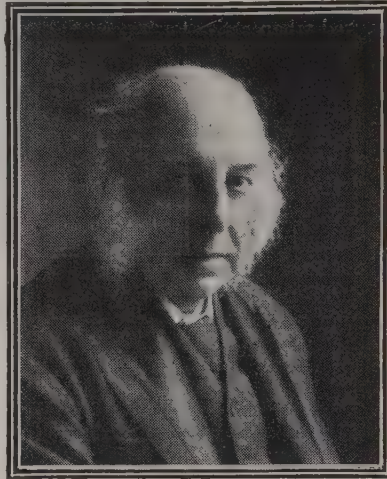
For close on to thirty years Sir Percy Bunting was the real, active, working editor of the *Contemporary Review*. It has been said of him that his chief distinction in the conduct of the *Contemporary* was his ability to get from a staff of outside contributors many of the ablest articles that have ever appeared in British reviews. He contributed to the *Contemporary* for years before assuming editorial control of that publication, and his name is attached to many of the most skilful translations of rising Continental writers that appeared in its pages. Mr. Clear, in the article in the *British Weekly* already quoted from, says that the most distinguished characteristic of Sir Percy was his concentrated energy.

It is probably true that Sir Percy Bunting's enthusiasms, lasting and powerful as they were, took the form rather of a steady, quiet, concentrated energy than that of occasional explosions broken by lethargies. His benevolent and benignant countenance seemed to reflect accurately the man's spirit. It took some time to know Sir Percy Bunting's really distinguished acquirements. At Cambridge he distinguished himself in mathematics, and was a high wrangler. He read for the Law, and was admitted to the Bar in 1862. I was told years ago by one of the most eminent of Wesleyan solicitors that Sir Percy might easily have attained a high place at the Bar and gained a great practice. But he was drawn to exercise himself and to use his life in another way. He was an excellent musician. It was said in his lifetime that he might have been the very first of British composers had he chosen a musical career, and that he was second to nobody as an accompanist. He was also a skilled linguist, could speak French beautifully, and was fond of foreign travel. In any French or Belgian city he made the most delightful of companions with his historical lore and his keen appreciation of art. Certain forms of literature appeared to attract him greatly. In particular, he read much of Continental drama, and was one of the very first to detect the genius of Maeterlinck.

In his editorial round-up for August, Mr. W. T. Stead, in the *English Review of Reviews*, reminds us that Sir Percy undertook the editorship of the *Contemporary* in 1882, "out of loyalty to the Christian faith, in order to save so influential an organ of public opinion from being applied to the service of unbelief." Methodists will remember him with gratitude as one

of the most staunch and influential supporters of the West London Mission; and as the loyal successor for some years of Mr. Price Hughes in the editorship of the *Methodist Times*. "But as friend and adviser Sir Percy exercised an unobtrusive influence which extended far beyond merely denominational circles."

Commenting on his death the *London Times* truly remarks that it would be hard to name a social reform movement at home or an oppressed nationality abroad which he did not help by voice or pen. In the



SIR PERCY BUNTING
(Editor of the *Contemporary Review*, 1882—1911)

Social Purity movement he took a most active part, with his sister Mrs. Sheldon Amos, and with Mrs. Josephine Butler. In the National Vigilance Association he was for many years chairman of the executive committee. International peace was another object dear to his heart; but, to the surprise of some of his associates, he did not take the Boer side during the South African War.

A keen politician, he was active in the National Liberal Federation; but he never pushed himself forward, or he might perhaps have obtained more recognition from his party leaders than the knighthood which came to him unexpectedly three years ago. He contested East Islington at the General Election of 1892, but was defeated.

Under Sir Percy Bunting's editorship, the *Contemporary Review* has become one of the most important organs of public opinion in Great Britain. It is noted for the timeliness as well as the weight of its articles on current problems. An instance of this quality is afforded by Sir H. H. Johnston's contribution on "Racial Problems and the Congress of Races" in the August number of the *Contemporary*, which appeared just before the meeting of the Races Congress in London.

ANATOLE FRANCE ON THE ORIGIN OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS

HE is a rash adversary who exposes his conviction to the relentless irony underlying the urbane methods of Anatole France. One by one the mob's fallacies, the burgher's hypocrisies, the aristocrat's superstitions and prejudice, the churchman's pride, the *savant's* vanity and the virtuous matron's cruelties and stupidities have been examined by the sage and have received their meed of gentle, destructive mockery. Marianne herself, vainest of nations, has been pilloried by her academician not only in her past, but her present and future, in the merciless "Isle of Penguins"; and in a great cycle of contemporary studies in politics, Monsieur France under the *béret* of M. Bergeret defended Dreyfus less loudly than Zola but for the enduring delight of those who browse in quiet pastures. Unflinchingly—perhaps a little maliciously—the disciple Émile Leroux asks Monsieur Bergeret-France his conception of the source of the suffragist turmoil; and the *Mercure de France* relates the episode for our edification.

If "women's rights" as a cause is a protest of weakness against strength, of the rights of woman opposed to the prerogatives of man—of the female versus the male—and if every social effect has an initial cause, what is the physiological, atavistic cause of this protest? "Is this a correct statement of your question?" asked Monsieur Bergeret of M. Leroux who assented to the learned precision of his elder.

"An explanation," M. Bergeret went on, "does not interest the reasoning powers nor does it excite reflection, nor is it easily retained if it be not curious, differing from accepted prejudices, and related at some point with the possibility of the phenomenon—truth.

If I question Genesis, in the first chapter, I stumble on verse 27 that has tormented many a rabbi and thinker. "God created man in His image. After His own image created He him. He created *them* male and female." The pronoun "them" in the plural referring to the noun in the singular "man" of the first part of the verse has made trouble for the curious for centuries."

Monsieur Bergeret quotes the interpretations put on the obscure pronoun by the Talmud, Pliny, Josephus, the heretic Amaueri in the XIIIth century, the ecstatic Antoinette Bourignon in the XVIIth—and with a sly thrust at the "unco' guid"—the profane version of Sadeur that horrified the doughty Dutch of the XVIth century. But this is far afield, and Monsieur Bergeret returns to the creation of Adam—and Lilith. "Cannot one with the exercise of a little imagination, identify the chaste Lilith—a superior being created a moment after Adam—with the original women's rights champion? Yes," continues M. Bergeret, noting the surprise and dismay of Monsieur Leroux, "there has been much gossip down the ages about



ANATOLE FRANCE AMONG THE MONUMENTS OF GRECIAN ARCHITECTURE

a mysterious and mythical Lilith of rabbinical invention, and most deplorable instincts and forwardness have been attributed to her. But there are two Liliths.

One immaculate, *liliale*, primeval—and another more dark than Tartary! The white Lilith, the second work of the Creator, man's immediate companion, was created a little after him although of the same clay—which allowed the Almighty to perfect His work, strengthening her brain and refining her form. This is she whom I elect to be our granddame of suffragism. It seems, if we can believe her admirers' biography of her, that our Lilith, so prudent, so superior, so chastely unyielding—a pure intellectual type—bored her husband to desperation. His short-sighted and very material ideas were not in accord with the transcendentalism of his first wife. Of the disputes that wrecked the first marriage in Paradise we know little—not even the precise cause of the separation of the pair, but it seems certain that it was not Lilith who provoked the Fall. For she, irritated by Adam's silliness and disdaining longer to endure him, left him and went away—whither? The rabbi leaves her place of refuge in doubt. I presume she created all to herself somewhere on an inaccessible island in the company of birds and other inoffensive animals, a little Eden after her own heart. Perhaps she inspired from there—or suggested—the mentality of Hypatia, of the Amazons, of the Essenes, the Gnostics, the Fran-

ciscans, the Carmelites and the Antionette Bourignons—of all who with Antigone refuse to bow to man's yoke. Lilith having departed in disgust, Eve was created from Adam's rib, in order that, bone of his bone, she might not feel insupportably superior to him and should not philosophize over the causes and consequences of his actions. Eve was not the equal, but the cook of Adam, and we all know what came of it.

"This rabbinical subtlety," concludes the perfidious Monsieur Bergeret, "seems to me as ingenious and profound as a Hans Andersen fairy tale. I should never have thought the rabbi so clever—and this is all I know of women's rights in their atavistic origins. The leaders of suffragism may boast of an impeccable standard-bearer. The narrow-minded, the pedants and the bigots may care to discuss the authenticity of Lilith—but it is enough for me that the tale is pretty to believe it!" If the lady who impersonated Jeanne d'Arc in the suffragist pageant has read Monsieur Bergeret's monumental life of the heroine, it may be that she will intercede for Lilith's detractor with her dread peers. For ourselves we plead the immunity of lesser wights.

A GLIMPSE OF THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN FRANCE

AN article by Madame Elizabeth Renaud, one of the ablest of French women interested in public questions, a suffragist and a socialist, appeared in a recent number of the *Rappel*, one of the great Parisian dailies. Madame Renaud, at the sham elections for the suffragists of France to elect new deputies, which took place during the winter of 1910, in a short campaign of one week, without influence, without money, and without advertising of any sort, knew how to persuade almost 3000 men in the Department of Isere to renounce their electoral privilege in her favor. She obtained 2813 votes. This is what she says in the *Rappel*:

What we call feminism to-day is a century old struggle. It might be called one of the forms of the struggles of right against might. But as our intention is not to go back to the antediluvian epoch, we will simply say that the feminist movement in France, such as it is to-day, is, above all, the work of the women of the bourgeoisie, that is to say of the intellectual middle class, and proceeds directly from the Great French Revolution of 1789. During the Revolution this question was agitated by people of considerable importance, such as Condorcet and his wife, Sophie Grouchy. This lady was noted for her intelligence and her

beauty. She translated from the English "The Theory of Moral Sentiments" of Adam Smith. Everybody knows how highly Condorcet esteemed his wife. His high ideas for the happiness of humanity could not be conceived without woman "snatched from the night of ignorance in which superstition had kept her." Olympe de Gournay, who mixed actively in the Great Revolution, said: "Since women are allowed to mount the scaffold, they should also be allowed to mount the rostrum." And she did mount the scaffold. However, as to the rights of woman, nothing remains from that epoch. On that point as on many others the Revolution has left only hopes. The only things it really accomplished were the establishment of equal shares of inheritance between brothers and sisters, the abolishment of perpetual religious vows, and greater facility in divorce. The Napoleonic Code, almost immediately after, took from woman the little she had received from the Revolution. Napoleon was antifeministe. He used the women of his surroundings to intrigue according to his political views; and from the mass of women he asked only soldiers for his wars. It was he who established the martial power, stupid and brutal as it still exists, the "communauté des biens" (which means that husband and wife hold in common what belongs to each; but, while the husband can do whatever he likes with it, the wife cannot dispose of one cent without the signature of her husband), the forbidding of proof of fatherhood of illegitimate children; two sets of morals, one very strict for woman and the other

very indulgent for man. If woman has not protested against the iniquities of that Code it is because the press was not free. It was only thanks to the broad and generous ideas provoked by Saint-Simon that feminism was reborn in France. The Saint-Simoniens proclaimed the equality of man and woman. The most remarkable women that have contributed to the propagation of the Saint-Simonism were Flora Tristan, who died in 1864; Laura Grouville, who died in prison; Pauline Roland, whom Victor Hugo has exalted in the XIth poem of "Les Chatiments." Exiled by Napoleon III, she was brought back dying to France. She gave up her soul without having seen again her children; Jeanne de Rouen and Louise Julien; the latter also died in exile. Victor Hugo pronounced at her tomb these words which history has not ratified: "The eighteenth century has proclaimed the Rights of Man; the nineteenth will proclaim the Rights of Woman!" The Second Republic in France in 1848 was the third important date for the "feminist question." Women organized; groups were formed; feminist papers were launched. But the reaction of the Second Empire under Napoleon III stopped the movement. Silence replaced the agitation and the direction of the movement passed to the Anglo-Saxon nations.

Considering the present state of affairs, one wonders, continues this writer, why the progress of feminism is so rapid among the Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian nations and so slow in France. Here are several causes:

First: Because France is a Catholic country. The Church, through the numerous. . . means at her disposal, among others the confessional where all personal responsibility is done away with, holds woman in her hand through the woman, the child, and too often the man (although he will not acknowledge it) and keeps alive. . . prejudices.

Second: It is the spirit of the Roman Empire, which has influenced our customs and habits, which has presided over the creations of our laws. It is that spirit that has inspired the Napoleonic Code.

There is a third cause, the consequences of what precedes. It is a spirit of laughter and mockery when men speak of woman. They call it wit, "Gallic wit." But it prevents them from seriously examining a very grave question. Frenchmen in general ask only beauty and style in woman; they

leave her about two parts to play in life. That of courtesan and that of housewife.

In spite of all these causes of delay French women have not remained inactive. Numerous groups are continually working for the cause they love with success. Those groups are principally composed of bourgeois women; but a great number of socialist women are also among them. They are united for one and the same object, to obtain the vote for women. Although the Code has not been touched "there are reasons to hope for the triumph of feminism" in France.

First: The lowering of the interest rate on money invested in State security. The high cost of living is increasing continually. Money now brings only three per cent. Many women of the small bourgeoisie are obliged to work for the first time, and thousands of them enter professional careers. Then they begin to understand that the basis of human society is remunerative work. Second: The rapid evolution of great industry and commerce; machinery has created the "proletariat," that appendix of the machinery condemned to uncertainty of employment, to inevitable idleness, to misery. The wife, the daughter of the proletarian are consequently thrown into the social whirlpool as cheap tools. They enter all branches of capitalistic industry and trade; for 16,000 workmen there are 6000 workwomen. They compete with the man. But as their so-called inferiority is exploited with impudence they are forced to feel



MME. JUDITH GAUTIER: PAINTER, SCULPTOR, MUSICIAN, ROMANEC AND SUFFRAGETTE
(In September, 1910, chosen first woman member of the Goncourt Academy)

where the shoe pinches, and they organize themselves into syndicates in order to obtain equal salary for equal work. Their organization is still rudimentary; the syndicates of women do not mean much yet, but they are on the road to achievement. The shameless exploitation of woman reduced to a starvation wage wakes her from her age-long torpor, and those who reach economic independence feel the need of shaking off masculine tyranny, that is to say the very tyranny established by the Napoleonic Code. Woman understands that being subject to the same laws (which are infinitely more severe for her), having the same responsibilities as man, she must evidently have the same civil and political rights. She knows that thus only can she accomplish the new tasks imposed upon her by the new order of

things. Only equal rights will enable her to contribute to society not only her manual and intellectual work but also the initiative and moral influence which are her own and which are so much needed that one scarcely dare discuss it. Thus today a majority of French women seeing themselves forced by economic conditions to enter the battlefield and to fight for their bread and too

often for that of their children, will be content only when the hour of justice through equal right shall have struck. Who would dare to question the justice of feminist demands supported as they are by an army of distinguished men, deputies, senators, lawyers, journalists, men of letters, earnestly and actively using all their influence for the cause?

THE DOUKHOBORS AND THEIR FUTURE IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

THE Doukhobors, the peculiar Russian religious sect of peasants who emigrated to Canada in such large numbers in 1899, and of whom so much was heard a few years later on account of their conflict with the Dominion Government, form the theme of an article—by N. Syrkin, of New York—in *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich).

As Tolstoy is the highest expression of the national Russian mind, the Sect of Doukhobors represent in their Canadian exile at its intensest the ethical-religious feeling of the Russian folk-soul. Tchertkoff has written that the Doukhobors perhaps furnish the nearest approach to the practice of Christ's teachings that is to be met with in modern life, though the public attention has been drawn too exclusively to the nomadic pilgrimages of groups of the community and to ascetic eccentricities accompanying them.

Mr. Syrkin traces in this article the Doukhobors' stormy history and expatiates upon their strange beliefs. He says, among other things:

The nucleus of the Doukhobor faith is solely recorded in the reports sent in by the community in the 18th century to the Russian government, because after Pobirokin's idea their faith should be shown forth in their life alone. We read that the human body is for the soul only a temporary prison where it can have no other aim than the manifestation of God; that the first men had neither customs nor religious institutions but were illumined by the Holy Ghost, and that later by the power of evil creeds and laws arose. Under Catherine II and Paul the Doukhobors underwent severe persecutions, under Nicholas I in 1842 they were exiled to Tiflis in the Caucasus in the hope that they would die out. The Doukhobors, however, made friends with the wild hillmen, prospered agriculturally in spite of the desert and rocky foothills, and were strengthened to endure another persecution in 1888. Then Peter Werigin undertook the leadership of the community's practical and mystical life, prohibiting smoking, wine and meat. As a consequence of the schism of the "Small party" Werigin and his disciples were banished to Siberia. In 1895 the Doukhobors burnt their weapons publicly and refused to take part in the Government suppressions and military service. After ordering the maltreating of women and children and massacre of unresisting old men, the

Government expelled four thousand Doukhobors from their villages and drove them into the Grusinian villages where over a thousand died of privation. The men available for military service were sent for 18 years to the criminal battalion in Siberia. In 1898 through the combined efforts of Tolstoy and the Society of Friends in England, funds were raised and the Czar's permission obtained for the emigration of the sect to Cyprus, which being found unsuitable, in 1899 over eight thousand Doukhobors were granted lands by the Canadian Government in the province of Assiniboia near Yorktown and of Saskatchewan near Thunder Hill and Prince Albert.

In Canada their hope of perfect freedom was not to be realized. The Canadian Government required of them the registration of births and deaths, the observance of the marriage laws, and the registration of individual claims to "homesteads" and not of the community. The Doukhobors carried out again Tolstoy's theory of passive revolution, and gave up the use of all Government institutions, as the post, the railroads. A new ascetic group, inflamed by Werigin's letters from Siberia, held that holiness is to be sought in the condition of Adam and Eve, who through Christ were redeemed to Paradise. The holy people should without food or clothing advance God's kingdom on earth and attain the ultimate victory of spirit over the flesh. In autumn 1902, men, women and children set out on their pilgrimage—toward Winnipeg in search of the new Paradise. When November came, the Canadian police had to interfere for the women and children, and the men soon returned to their villages. A second pilgrimage was begun in spring, 1903, but came to an abrupt end through their practice of the tenet that clothing is the last bar to the absolute triumph of the spirit, and the spiritual man has no need to be ashamed of his body—shame being an error of civilization. The police again interfered and sent the pilgrims to prison for three months in Regina. The Doukhobors refused to obey the prison authorities and were severely punished.

Mr. Syrkin notes that on the arrival of Peter Werigin in Canada the return to the traditional Doukhoborism and the introduction of modern agricultural methods began. Werigin disowned the pilgrimages and discarders of clothing and organized the communities into a central union. The patriarchal life is strictly adhered to and work is more the contented occupation of energy than the curse of bread earned in the sweat



THE DOUKHOBORS AT WORK ON THEIR CANADIAN FARMS

of the brow. Everything is left to the good will and judgment of the individual, the administration is at a nominal cost as the elders work. Annually 1000 adults are sent as day laborers for the railways, and after the deduction of their living expenses they return the greater part of their wage to the common treasury. One of the largest and best brick making plants in Canada has been founded by the Doukhobors at Yorktown, and the communities have paid their debts and even eighteen months after their arrival in Canada, wrote to the English Quakers to cease pecuniary gifts and apply them to others more needy.

But even under Werigin the Doukhobors have not found peace. True to their belief in common property they have finally refused to become Canadian subjects and consequently have lost the greater part of their homesteads of about the value of two million dollars, retaining only about fifteen acres for each member of a community. The pilgrimages in search of the new Paradise have begun again and the distressing feature of the nude fanatics has been of regrettable prominence. The latest development is the decision to emigrate to British Columbia, where the communities already own three thousand acres. In the conviction of the worthlessness of worldly aims and the hollowness of their economical success, the Doukhobors are as intent as of old on their spiritual salvation and parched with the thirst for martyrdom. Doukhoborism rests

on the deep, inner experience of the soul in search of absolute truth. God, reason, life, love, Christ and man are for the Doukhobor interchangeable terms. Because he seeks an exalted, ecstatic experience, and not culture, the Doukhobor is clearer on what man should not do than what he should, he is non-creative—only attaining eminence where the individual whose conscience is his sole guide has to battle with exterior forces. At most the Doukhobors have only an intuitive conception of the great aims for which modern culture strives. Their aid could only be as the proverbial wisdom "out of the mouths of babes." In resistance alone are they many and heroic—in their stubborn seeking for perfection in isolation from the world, society and temptations of wealth and the body are they an example and light to a materialistic age. In their future lies the possibility as with all primitive and natural phenomena of decay and dispersal, but of extraordinary evolution as well. The history of Doukhoborism in Canada is not yet at an end, for its essence is struggle and wandering. Error and experience of truth, grandeur and niggardliness, heroism and self-sufficiency, *Weltschmerz* and isolation, sublime metaphysics and dry rationalism are linked intimately in their history. Have they now the creative faculty to acquire a new mission, or are they destined to dwindle away in the arid strife against sin and the storming of Heaven's gates for a holiness not of this earth?

SOME GERMAN PIONEERS IN THE UNITED STATES

RUDOLF CRONAU, the German author, of New York, writing in the *Gartenlaube*, Leipsic, describes with patriotic fervor the many-sided efforts and achievements of his countrymen in the United States, showing how much they have contributed to the up-building, liberation, and preservation of this nation. He singles out names that are especially noteworthy and points to the cultural benefits that the German spirit has bestowed upon the Union; winding up by recalling to our minds the notable fact that the German-Americans have in the new century formed a union which has assumed large proportions. In fact as well as figuratively, he contends, the Germans in America have occupied the foreposts fully three hundred years, and have fought valiantly and successfully for German culture and for the advancement of mankind in general.

Without their energetic coöperation we should assuredly be a hundred years behind our present stage of development. The repulsive institution of slavery would likely be still in existence, and one of the greatest acquisitions, freedom of the press, not yet attained. Without the Germans the great union of the States might not have been consummated, the "far West" be yet unsettled. Any one that desires proof of these comprehensive claims should study the past of the Germans in America. It is rich in memories of high-spirited characters who with infinite pains, sacrifice, and disappointments labored for man's progress. Among the heroes that lent such luster to the colonial period we find Germans of the right stamp: There was Jacob Leisler, who, in the Eastern colonies, was the first to awaken a feeling of common interests; the noble-minded jurist, Pastorius, under whose lead a small body of German Mennonites formed the first real German settlement in America, at Germantown. And it was there that Christof Sauer published the first German paper, the first German books, and a German Bible, on this continent.

History records that in many of the colonies the Germans formed the advance-guard of civilization, engaging in bloody combats with the Indians and the French invaders from Canada. And when the colonies revolted against England, the German settlers were among the first to espouse the cause of freedom, and distinguished themselves by many deeds of valor. A few months ago a monument was erected in Philadelphia to Pastor Muhlenberg, the hero who threw off his gown in the pulpit, displaying his martial uniform. Towering obelisks mark the graves of the valiant Herkimer and the German peasants of the Mohawk Valley, who at the murderous battle at Oriskany foiled the masterly plans of the British and thus averted the gravest danger that threatened the side of freedom. And last December a monument was dedicated at Washington to Baron von Steuben, who as the organizer of the American army doubtless furnished

the most valuable assistance given by Europeans to the colonies in their desperate struggle. An impartial study of that conflict leads one to doubt whether without the aid of those high-souled men and of the Germans in America that great fight for liberty, that so stirred the whole world, would have proved successful. One must likewise ask oneself whether it would have been possible to preserve the Union in the Civil War without the aid of the 200,000 German-Americans who fought under the Union flag.

Shoulder to shoulder with the Anglo-Americans the Germans penetrated the virgin wilds of the New World, built their log cabins in the vast forests and prairies, and after centuries of painful effort converted the waste places into fields of plenty. "The prosperity of entire States is essentially due to the Germans." As agriculturists they have been eminently successful everywhere. The writer in passing last summer through regions of New York and Pennsylvania settled by natives of the Palatinate 200 years ago, thought he had never beheld better managed estates—model farms in every respect, with contented dwellers, whose comfortable circumstances are due to their ceaseless energy and intelligent management. In the various branches of industrial activity, too, we find German enterprise and influence.

As the Germans were the first to introduce printing in America, they likewise introduced typefoundries, iron mills, glass and chemical factories, powder mills, armories, industries in leather goods, watches, and goldware. That the German-Americans are not lacking in foresight and daring is evidenced by the great number of names which occupy a conspicuous place in American life to-day—among them such as Astor, Havemeyer, Frick, Rockefeller, Wanamaker. In highly developed technique and engineering, too, the German-Americans have been pioneers. The world is indebted to Roebling for the first use of wire cable in bridges of unusual proportions. His suspension bridges across the Niagara, Ohio, and East rivers secure him a lasting place as a genius of the first order. German engineers furnished the plans for numerous viaducts, railway bridges, and tunnels that are among the notable sites of this country. German architects designed many of the finest structures in the New World; thus, the Library of Congress, which as a model of construction and, for richness of the materials used, is unrivaled.

The stimulus imparted to American spiritual life by the Germans cannot be estimated, continues this writer. There is scarcely a higher seat of learning in the United States to-day that is not imbued with German lore or that does not reflect German influence in its

teaching and methods; and many of them have eminent Germans on their staffs. It is a notable fact that there are over 750 German papers and periodicals published in the United States; and we may well speak of a German-American literature; "since it can boast of many a work that would do credit to the literature of any people."

What a potent influence the Germans have exerted upon the Americans through the art of music is universally recognized.

In 1849 the German singing societies of Ohio and Indiana held the first German *Gesangfest* in this country and united to form the *Deutscher Sängerbund von Nord-Amerika*. Since then the German song has spread over the whole broad land. In art, likewise, the Germans have held their own. Painters like Lentze, Bierstadt, Mosler, Melchers, Marr, Schreyvogel; sculptors like Sibbel, Bitter, Weinmann, Niehaus will take an honorable place in the history of American art.

In an appreciation of German influence in the United States we must not omit the many charitable foundations due to German-Americanism.

Foremost among these are the *Deutsche Gesellschaften* found in numerous towns, organized for the aid and protection of immigrants. The Legal Aid Societies—of which the "Legal Aid Society of New York City" has since its foundation helped far more than 300,000 people without means, of all nationalities, to secure justice—may also be mentioned. Nearly all cities with a considerable Ger-

man population have also German hospitals, old people's homes, orphanages, libraries and other such institutions.

These instances form but a tithe of the cultural achievements of the Germans in the United States. To estimate their full value is impossible, since far the greater part has been accomplished by a quiet, inconspicuous activity. The magnitude of their efforts is the more remarkable when we consider that until quite recently they formed no united body with definite aims.

With the advent of the new century a significant change in that respect took place. On the 6th of October, 1901, there assembled in the hall of the venerable *Deutsche Gesellschaft von Pennsylvania* a small body of men in order to organize the *Deutschamerikanischer Nationalbund*—not to form a "State within a State" but to combine the mighty forces residing in German-Americanism and use them for the benefit of their new home, to spread and fortify the German spirit and German culture. That these aims answered the ardent longings of countless Germans in America is shown by the astonishing growth of the organization. Under the lead of its energetic president, Dr. Hexamer, it has spread into almost every State of the Union, and, with its two million members, is probably, indeed, the largest German organization in the world. Various activities of a common nature have, more or less directly, resulted from this national union—such as the Germanistic societies in New York, Boston, Chicago, etc.; the Germanic Museum at Harvard, the exchange professorships between Germany and this country.

"THE MYSTERY OF SAINT SEBASTIAN" IN THE FRENCH AND ITALIAN REVIEWS

IN the "Acta Sanctorum" St. Ambrose writes that Sebastian, chief of the first cohort and friend to Diocletian, encouraged his fellow Christians, Marcus and Marcellinus, to resist temptations to recant, that he healed the sick, converted a magician, and refusing Diocletian's proffered grace, found martyrdom at the hands of his own archers.

On this basis Gabriele d'Annunzio has built his epic drama of the struggle for ascendancy of paganism and Christianity—and this struggle seen through the violet and saffron rosace of a Gothic nave. For the poet has chosen the mould of the medieval French mystery play for his vision of Rome of the third century satiated with materialism and prey to all the magic and mystical cults of the Orient. And to the service of France he has brought the faith that is his inheritance as countryman of the Assisian, his vast erudition, his powers of

rhythm and eloquence, his past mastery of the deeper poetry that invades the province of music.

The prologue, that Pierre Gringoire might have recited before Louis XI sets forth that the master "has preferred the dulcet speech of France in that it be pleasant and common to all people," and that the five acts are as five stained glass windows wrought by a journeyman to win the rights of city in the shadow of Notre Dame.

M. Gustave Cohen hails with generous enthusiasm D'Annunzio's "Saint Sebastian" in the *Mercure de France*; and remarks in substance:

In the year 1496, the city of Châlon, to celebrate their deliverance from the pest, gave a Mystery play of "Monsieur Saint Sebastian." After four centuries, to preserve us from the pest of low and ugly themes, a "Florentine in exile" offers to our meditations a serene, lofty and sovereign "Martyr-



MANTEGNA'S "ST. SEBASTIAN"

(Recently added to the collections of the Louvre Museum)

dom" in the form of the old mysteries. But it must be admitted that there is not one scene of the old plays that is equal to any of D'Annunzio's frescos. Where in them can one find an equal intensity to the supplications of the mother to Marcus and Marcellinus that they desist from their martyrdom? It is beautiful as the antique tragedy—as Medea's lamentations before she slays her children. I recall Euripides—not the mystery rhymesters. Unknown to them too the grandeur of the symbol of the Woman Ill of Fever—She who has borne the burden of human sorrow and sin through her successive incarnations as temptress of the angel Arédrôs, to Magdalene at the Sepulchre, where the dread lover returns to brand with his torch her breast as a shrine for the Holy Shroud. Since the Holy Grail that haunted the Celtic imagination—since the Divine Comedy—Perceval and Dante—we have had nothing to equal this formidable creation. It has been cited as an impiety that D'Annunzio describes the sacred dance of Sebastian before the Emperor as a representation of the Passion. But this is a grave error, the scene recalls the most ancient form of liturgical drama in which the three Marys wept in the church around the Sepulchre represented by a wooden cross. Born at the foot of the altar as they were, the religious dramas contained germs of beauty but choked by the weeds of such

ccarseness that to-day no public would support them. D'Annunzio has spared us the grotesque interventions of demons, the infamous pleasantries of the "villain," his wife and the tavern keeper, and the horrible jests of the executioners. He has called his acts "Mansions" and made anachronism his law in costumes, but his drama is too logically constructed, the symbols are too sublime, the historical vision too ample to continue the tradition of the old mystery—their somewhat heavy simplicity and ingenuous length. The great Italian has betrayed the genre, but ennobled it. In future our literature has to count with a masterpiece more as well as another great poet. In mind not unlike ours, his classical culture is at war with his childhood's religious ardors. He adores pagan beauty with a mystic rapture that is Christian, his very faith is moulded of the antique Latin clay. His work stirs in us this profound conflict, internal antagonism to which we—as he—are heirs.

In the *Illustrazione Italiana*, Signor Diego Angeli gives his impressions of the première at the Châtelet in May.

The Mystery moves in a vague atmosphere of medievalism that reminds me of the rococo of Verlaine's "Fêtes Galantes." Both give a profound sensation of an entire period, but if they add to our perception all that makes the superiority of a work of art to a mere reconstruction, they are as far from the truth as a Rossetti picture from a Botticelli or an elegant and perverse Aubrey Beardsley from a satirical scene of Hogarth. And each approaches its predecessor admirably. As an example: The early Christians adopted some of the Oriental rites and advanced on the dangerous path of magic horrors. Now all this is marvelously expressed in Sebastian's hesitation on the threshold of the Magic Chamber in the II act. But it is our sentiment—totally unknown to a Gallic poet of the XIV century, whose conception of antiquity did not go beyond his own world, and whose Madonna was necessarily "*Madame la Sainte Vierge*" and Dionigius, "*le bon Messir Saint Denys*." Another notable fact anent the orthodoxy of the Mystery is that the true triumph is celebrated by paganism—the ancient creed triumphs in the scene of the burning coals in the first act—so little mystical, in the apparition of the Zodiac in the second and above all in the third act which from Diocletian's appeal to his beautiful archer till the suffocation by wreaths and flowers of the Holy Youth amid the chorus of worshippers of Adonis is one magnificent outburst of praise to Beauty and Life.

Léon Bakst, the designer of the scenery and costumes is one of the group of Russian painters who with Benois have so radically modified decorative art. Together with Claude Debussy's music, Bakst is doubly potent. Both belong to that school of restless analysis made up of timidities and daring that is represented annually by the Salon D'Automne. D'Annunzio speaks of stained glass in the prologue but rather I should say the decorations resemble four frescos painted by Gustave Moreau who might have copied in the first a legend of Pinturicchio, in the second a Henri Blès or Maître des Moulins, in the third a dispute by Filippino Lippi and in the fourth a Garden of Paradise with fountains and kneeling ancestors by Benozzo Gozzoli.

WHO DISCOVERED ANESTHESIA?

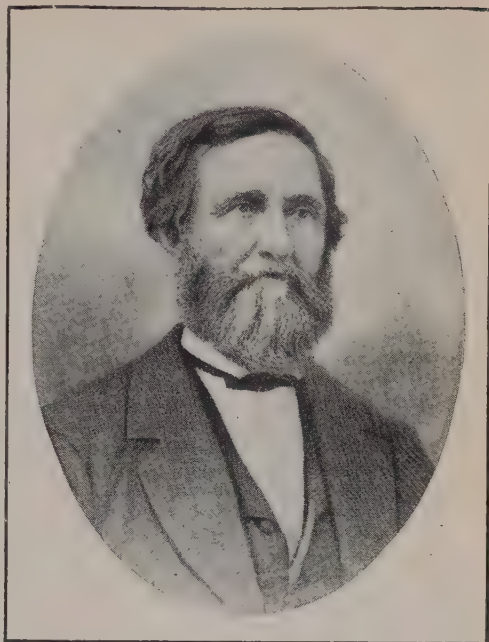
IT is related of the late King Edward of England that when, after his operation for perityphlitis, he regained consciousness, he asked, "Who discovered anesthesia?" The reply given was, "Dr. Crawford Long, your Majesty." According to Miss Rosa Pendleton Chiles, writing in the August *Munsey's*, the English have for years acknowledged Dr. Long's rightful claim to the honor. Dr. George Foy, of Dublin, author of "Anesthetics, Ancient and Modern," more than a year ago, wrote to Dr. Long's daughter as follows:

Of one great fact I am sure, to wit: the principal anesthetists of London recognize that your father's claim to the discovery of general anesthesia is well founded. And in their hospital classes they so inform their students. No writing or talking can now affect his position. It has been accepted, and is acknowledged by writers and teachers.

And Dr. J. Marion Sims, one of our leading surgeons, says:

Vaccination and anesthesia are the greatest boons ever conferred by science on humanity. England gave us one; America, the other. England recognized the labors of Jenner; America should recognize the labors of Long.

As long ago as 1800 Sir Humphry Davy discovered that unconsciousness could be caused by nitrous oxide gas, and recommended its use in surgery; but no one paid any attention to his suggestion. Eighteen years later Faraday proved the anesthetic effects of sulfuric ether; and his report received the endorsement of the American physicians Godman (1822), Jackson (1833), Wood, and Bache (1834). But, as Miss Chiles remarks, "all such observations were considered 'scientific curiosities,' and the world was almost as ignorant of the nature, possibilities, and practical demonstration of anesthesia in 1842, when Dr. Long started a new era in surgery, as it was in the days of Adam." Just why Dr. Long's claim to the discovery came to be disputed, is clearly explained in the article under notice. The rules of the medical profession require a physician "to establish his claim as a discoverer by independent verification; to use his discovery for the benefit of his patients as soon as he is satisfied of safety in its employment; and at such time as he is assured by exhaustive demonstration of the safety with which less experienced operators may use it, to give it to the profession as a whole." The only thing that "has cheated Dr. Craw-



CRAWFORD WILLIAMSON LONG, THE GEORGIA PHYSICIAN WHO FIRST USED ETHER TO PRODUCE ANESTHESIA DURING A SURGICAL OPERATION

ford Williamson Long of Georgia, of many of the honors due him was the criticism, in the days of the so-called 'ether controversy,' that he did not give his work to the profession early enough."

Although Long throughout his course at the University of Pennsylvania and in the early years of his practice in Jefferson, Georgia, was anxious to discover something that would alleviate pain in surgery, it was by accident that he finally found it. To quote Miss Chiles:

In the first half of the last century, sulfuric ether was used in New England, and in certain sections of the South, to furnish the principal entertainment at private social gatherings. These curious affairs were called "ether frolics." Young people inhaled the gas for its properties as an excitant, and the strange antics of those under its influence caused merriment for the rest of the party.

Dr. Long, when he was about twenty-six years old, inhaled it with other young people, . . . and . . . afterward, it occurred to him that the safe agency for painless surgery had been found. After considering the matter carefully, on the 30th of March, 1842, he successfully performed the first authenticated operation without pain to the subject. This fact has never been disputed.

James M. Venable, a young man who had inhaled ether at "ether frolics," consented to have a tumor removed while under the influence of the gas. . . . Two months later the same man had another tumor removed with equal success.

There were four witnesses of the first operation, and all of them bore testimony to its complete success. They were young men studying in Dr. Long's office. . . . The preceptor and his pupils, behind closed doors, anesthetized one another time and again to make sure of the process and its results.

It may be worth while to reprint the bill which Dr. Long rendered to Venable, as copied from the physician's books:

JAMES VENABLE TO DR. C. W. LONG, DR.

1842		
January 28.	Sulfuric ether.....	\$.25
March 30.	Ether and exsecting tumor.....	2.00
May 13.	Sulfuric ether.....	.25
June 6.	Exsecting tumor.....	2.00

The other claimants to the discovery were Horace Wells, a dentist of Hartford; William T. G. Morton, a dentist of Boston; and Charles T. Jackson, a distinguished physician and chemist, in whose house Morton was studying. Wells had conceived the idea as early as 1840 that nitrous oxide might be useful in tooth extractions, but had never tried it. It was not until 1844 that he experimented with it, and then upon himself. Morton had been Wells's partner before his experiments with the gas; and its usefulness was doubted by him. In 1846 Jackson pro-

posed that Morton should try it, and the latter did so with complete success. Both Morton and Jackson succeeded in obtaining recognition from the French Academy, and a proposal was made to secure from the United States Government a grant of \$100,000 in recognition of the discovery. The controversy went on for five years before Long could be persuaded to take part in it. When he did so, Jackson relinquished his claim in favor of Long's. The curious fact of the affair is that all of Long's rivals came to dramatic ends. Wells, overcome by the rejection of his claims by the French Academy, committed suicide; Morton died from congestion of the brain induced by excitement over an article seeking to deprive him of his honors; and Jackson, like Wells, became insane from the contention over the disputed honor, and died in an asylum. Long himself, "in the fullness of service, was stricken with apoplexy at the bedside of a patient." The Medical Society of Georgia last year erected a monument to Dr. Long; and the Georgia Legislature by unanimous vote resolved that his statue should have a place in Statuary Hall, at Washington.

ANGLICANISM IN ARCHITECTURE

WITH the structural completion of the choir of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine at New York, a change was made in the architectural control of the edifice which has given rise to considerable controversy, the architect who for twenty years has had charge of the work having been superseded by a consulting architect. An unsigned article in the *Architectural Record* characterizes this supersession as "an harsh divorce between the work and the architect who has given twenty years of his life to it"; it also asserts that the "consulting architect's own works show an entire lack of sympathy with what has thus far been done on Morningside Heights." Ignoring the personal and professional aspects of the controversy, the article in question discusses the architectural aspects, which it considers "important and interesting enough to call for some comment." Such as it is, the edifice "has been generally acclaimed as an impressive and most interesting building, an architectural success," the only adverse public criticism that it has encountered having been that it is not "English Gothic." On this point the *Architectural Record* writer says:

The strictures upon the Cathedral of St. John the Divine for not being pure English Gothic are irrelevant and nugatory unless and until the premise that "it ought to be" pure English Gothic is established. . . . The sentiment of "Anglicanism" is surely worth keeping in the architecture of an Episcopal cathedral, unless and until it comes into conflict with newer conceptions, ecclesiastical or architectural, with, let us say, such a conception as the need to a cathedral of a great "auditorium," a preaching-place in which can be assembled as large a congregation as can be brought within the range of a human voice, with, let us say, such a conception as the modern tile arch, which to clothe in the forms of the groined vault of the old Gothic ministers were to indulge in a fiction or a masquerade. Whether there has been in things ecclesiastical such an evolution as we know to have occurred in things mechanical is a question not for the architect, but for the church. . . . Yet in the case of this cathedral, the architects were left entirely to their own devices. They were under no sort of restriction or limitation, except that the interior length of the building should not exceed 520 feet.

About one hundred plans were submitted in competition; and the article under review emphasizes the fact that

the diocesan authorities, by the selection of a plan, distinctly committed themselves and the diocese against the strict example of English Gothic which it is now insisted that the cathedral



From the *Architectural Record*

COMPETITIVE DESIGN (PERSPECTIVE) FOR THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. JOHN THE DIVINE, NEW YORK,
AS SUBMITTED BY THE ARCHITECTS, MESSRS. HEINS AND LA FARGE

should furnish, and which it is clearly out of the question that the existing cathedral can be made to furnish without a process of demolition equal in extent to the work of edification.

The winning design was described at the time of competition as "a domical church in a Gothic shell"; and a study of the plan and sections of the cathedral indicates domes as "a more appropriate and expressive covering of it than the sloping Gothic roof." As originally planned, each bay of the nave was to have its own cupola, while the choir was to be covered with a continuous tunnel vault.

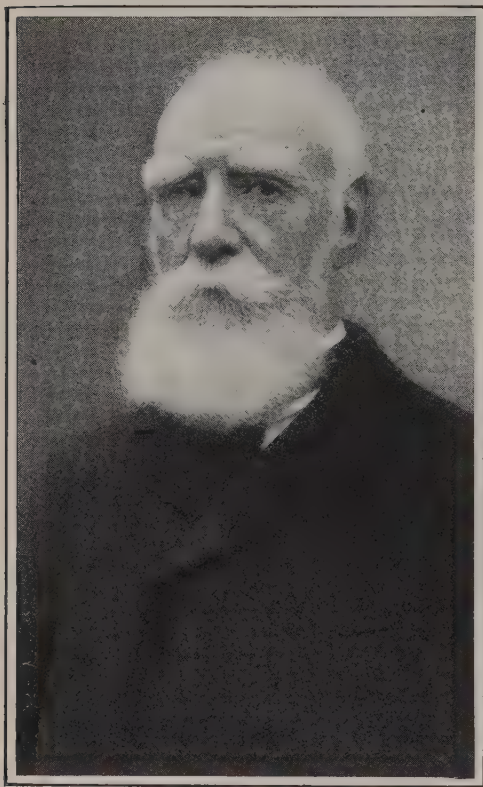
The changes made during the progress of the work have been in the direction of Gothic, in the direction of Anglicanism. To the desire to Anglicize as much as might be may probably be attributed, at least in part, the change from the original tunnel vault of the choir to two bays of groined vaulting, with the substitution of clustered piers, expressive of the superstructure thus substituted, for the smooth pillars which would have been the logical supports of the original vault, and would have conformed more perfectly than the Gothic pier to the magnificent semicircle of the huge, smooth, unmodelled columns that support the semidome of the apse, the finest feature of the interior, in which there is nothing of historical Gothic at all. . . . The purpose has been attained of

furnishing an enormous auditorium at the crossing as well as of providing a most impressive terminal feature; and it is a purpose which historical English Gothic furnishes no available precedents for attaining, excepting only the octagon of Ely.

The churchmen who are now anxious that the work should be continued in a more strictly Anglican fashion are reminded that "the diocese has for these twenty years been committed against a strictly English Gothic cathedral," and, further, that "all the contributions to the erection of the cathedral have been obtained for the execution of a design which was deliberately preferred to the Gothic designs, its competitors."

We are told that the choir of the Cathedral as it stands, is less than one-half of the ultimate structure contemplated, in length and in breadth, and "so much less than one-half in area and cubical contents that in spite of its impressive actual dimensions, it might almost be ascribed as a fragment only of the mighty minister of which it is to be an integral part, and shows scarcely the beginnings of the intended decoration, sculptural or pictorial."

STRATHCONA, COMPOUNDED OF CECIL RHODES AND SAMUEL SMILES



LORD STRATHCONA IN HIS NINETIETH YEAR

IT is not on record that Lord Strathcona has ever made a joke. Nor has he yet lived to be a hundred. But there is every probability that he will do one of these things, and he may even do the other. With these trifling exceptions, says W. T. Stead, in the *English Review of Reviews*, Lord Strathcona has most of the distinctions that can fall to the lot of a British subject.

In the life of many a statesman his political career seems more or less marked out from the beginning. In Lord Strathcona's case this was not so. His life may be said to have been divided into three parts.

His youth, as a clerk in the Hudson's Bay Company, was spent among Indians in the dreary frozen wilderness; his manhood, in promoting railway companies and building up a nation; and his old age as a statesman and an Imperial force. In the first years of Lord Strathcona's life in Canada there was no Dominion, nor were the provinces united. Neither the French Canadians nor the English-speaking people in Upper Canada were friendly toward England. The revenues of the country were small, there were no railways across the continent, and the Hudson's Bay Company

was in the hands of trappers and traders. In 1838 Donald Smith entered this region. For ten years he remained in the St. Lawrence ports, doing the work of an ordinary clerk, with intervals of boating, fishing and shooting.

The most dramatic chapter in the life of Donald Smith—afterwards to become Lord Strathcona—was the Red River Rebellion, the Riel Rebellion as it is often called.

For some years a number of malcontents, residing at Red River, had been trying to stir up an agitation so as to separate their settlement from that of the Hudson's Bay Company. The population in the district of Assiniboia had rapidly increased and was imperilling the hold of the company. The company's rule, which hitherto had been wise and practical, was denounced as arbitrary. Better representation was demanded, and, by dint of much uproar and noise, considerable sympathy was obtained from outside. To understand fully the character of this Red River settlement it must be explained that the population was considerably mixed. In all there were about 12,000 souls. There were Europeans, Canadians, Americans and French half-breeds. Most of the priests were natives of France, to whom Canada was almost a foreign country. With a mixed population like this it was difficult to deal, and when, on November 9, 1869, the deed was signed in London, whereby the company surrendered its interests in the Northwest to the Crown, with reservations for the company, rebellion broke out. The leader was Louis Riel, a half-breed described as "a short, stout man with a large head, a square-cut, massive forehead overhung by a mass of long and thickly clustering hair, and marked with well-cut eyebrows—together a remarkable-looking face."

The new governor, Macdougall, was not equal to the task of dealing with a man like Riel. This half-breed leader seized Fort Garry, made the editor of the local paper prisoner, and was issuing proclamations to the inhabitants. So matters went on, until sixty of Riel's enemies were confined in Fort Garry, and the insurgents' flag hoisted.

Away in Montreal, Donald Smith was slowly but surely studying the position. Understanding the characters of both Macdougall and Riel, he saw how hopeless the situation was. Understanding them better than they understood themselves, he realized that what was needed was a man who knew the inner mind of the Company well, and could clear its character of the imputations cast upon it. He was the man—he felt it, and although the journey involved grave personal risk, he resolved to go. Leaving all valuable documents behind (for he feared treachery from Riel) he set out, and, as was expected, was practically made prisoner by Riel.

The first meeting was a memorable one. In the open air, with the thermometer 20 degrees

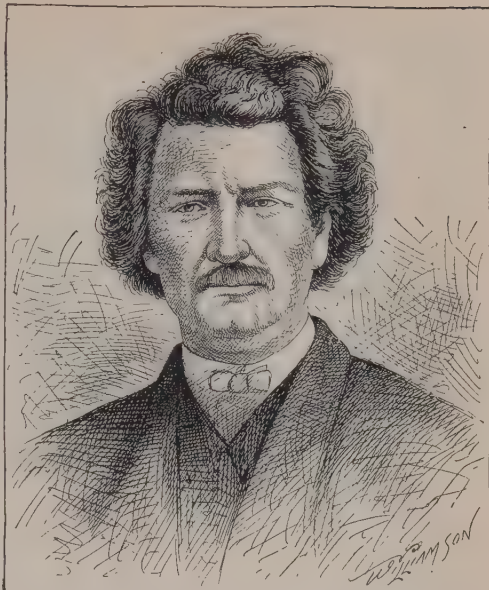
below zero, a cruel, biting wind penetrating through the warmest clothing, there they stood, men of all nationalities and ages. On the small raised platform were the four men most concerned in the rebellion—Riel, O'Donoghue, De Salaberry (a man beloved by thousands), and Donald Smith. At first the meeting was wholly with Riel, who cleverly got himself appointed French interpreter. But when things were at their worst, and men of the opposite sides glared at each other with hate in their eyes, Smith rose to speak. His facts, his practical wisdom, and, above all, his reasonableness, had their effect upon the swaying multitude. If he did not gain much that day, at any rate he averted bloodshed. The next day things went better. The proposition that representatives should be chosen from both sides was accepted, and when Riel agreed to disband the men at Fort Garry all classes felt that the worst was over. However, matters were not so easily arranged. Riel broke his word, and after the murder of a young man called Scott, Mr. Smith, feeling that only the power of the British Army could do any good, left Fort Garry for Ottawa.

Although the general inhabitants of the Red River Settlement were appeased, thanks to their confidence in Mr. Smith, Riel was not yet brought to reason, and in the summer of 1870, two men, afterwards famous, came out with Sir Garnet Wolseley. They were Captain (afterwards General) Buller and Lieutenant (afterwards General) Butler.

The people, disgusted with the tyranny of the "New Napoleon," as they called Riel, wished for another administration, and received the newcomers with every sign of joy. Victory was easy. At the approach of the "red coats" Riel, with his co-conspirators, fled, and, crossing the ferry, took up a position on the shores of St. Boniface. All was now quiet in the Settlement, the purchase price, £300,000, had been paid, and the territory transferred to Canada. Pending the arrival of the new Governor, the Hon. Adams G. Archibald, Colonel Wolseley called upon Mr. Donald A. Smith to administer affairs. This appointment gave great satisfaction.

Canadian unity, the establishment of the Dominion, was the next ambition of Mr. Smith, and a large factor he became in bringing it about. To become a nation Canada must have railways, and with this end in view, after becoming Member for Winnipeg in the Provincial Assembly, he used all his ingenuity and energy. In 1871 he was elected to the Dominion House as Member for Selkirk, by the almost unanimous vote of the community. His one great effort was the construction of railways and he used all his energies to the accomplishment of this end. To him is due, perhaps more than to any other one man the building of the Canadian Pacific.

The expenses were enormous, and both Mr. Smith and his colleague, Mr. Stephen, were obliged



LOUIS RIEL, THE HALF-BREED CANADIAN WHO LED
THE WESTERN REBELLION FORTY YEARS AGO

to pledge their private fortune in order that the work could go on. In Montreal to-day there are many stories in circulation of the meetings which used to be held at which the Board of Directors sat with blank faces, discussing ways and means. At one of these meetings Mr. Smith is alleged to have said: "It's clear we want money. Well, we can't raise it amongst ourselves. Let us come back to-morrow and report progress." When the Board met the next day each member reported failure until it came to Mr. Smith's turn. "I've raised another million; it will carry us on for a bit. When it is spent we will raise some more." And so the work went on. On November 7th, 1885, five and a half years before its time, the railway was finished, and people began to realize how much one man had done by pluck, energy, and determination.

In 1886, after the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway, Mr. Smith received a knighthood of the Order of St. Michael and St. George. But he needed not a title to make himself known. As his riches increased so did his philanthropy. In 1889 came the highest honor of all in his commercial life—his appointment as Governor to the Hudson's Bay Company. He had gone through every stage, from clerk to Governor of the company's business, and proved himself faithful in all. Further honors were in store for him. At the age of seventy-seven he was offered, and accepted, the post of High Commissioner for the Dominion, and the same year he became a Peer of the Realm. In the latter part of August, 1897, he was gazetted Baron Strathcona and Mount Royal of Glencoe, Argyll-

shire, and Montreal, Canada. In 1900 his intrepid energy caused him to send out a mounted troop of 600 men to South Africa when the Boer War broke out, needless to say at his own cost. In reviewing the life of Lord Strathcona one is struck by the simple manner in which he has always undertaken patriotic responsibility.

Instinctively one thinks of another great man whose life was also given to the Empire in one of its younger States. Cecil Rhodes and Donald Smith both left their homeland young. Both were endowed with brains, energy, and determination. Both took their lives in their hands, without attaching any great importance to the risk. Just as Donald Smith, with a handful of followers, entered Fort Garry to negotiate with a band of rebels so Rhodes faced the Matabele chiefs and made known his terms to them. Except that the climatic conditions were different, both men's difficulties were much alike. When men have grievances it does not matter whether it is under the blazing sun of

Africa or the snowy sky of Canada; human nature is always the same, and if in either case tact or courage had failed the lives of Donald Smith and Cecil Rhodes would probably have ended there and then.

It is often asked, what is the secret of a man's success? In Lord Strathcona's case perhaps it has been the cultivation of two great qualities: perseverance and a habit of doing his work with regularity and ease.

In Lord Strathcona's bearing there is control and a sort of lofty prudence expressed by the intrepid look in his eyes. He carries with him the atmosphere that surrounds all men who have dwelt long in solitudes. His favorite attitude when he converses is a strong folding of the arms and a downward, pondering look. His hair is now snow-white; his skin is fresh, and about him there is a pleasant vigor that is wonderful for his years. This is from a personal description by one who has known him, and we may take leave of Lord Strathcona with it, and with the reflection that so long as Britain produces Wardens of the Marches of this type—half Samuel Smiles, half Cecil Rhodes—all will be well with her.

CANADA'S PROPOSED RETALIATORY COPYRIGHT BILL

IT is a somewhat curious coincidence that at the very time it has before it the consideration of commercial reciprocity with the United States, Canada should be proposing to enact a copyright bill "avowedly to retaliate against the United States and, by making wholesale piracy possible, to force the Washington Government to become a signatory to the Berne Convention." Citing as "very well worth reading from a Canadian point of view" the article on "Twenty Years of International Copyright," by Prof. Brander Matthews, which appeared in the June issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, Mr. Frank Wise in the *University Magazine* (Toronto) addresses to his countrymen in the Dominion some common-sense advice respecting the unwisdom of the new bill. He considers it "inconceivable that the [Canadian] Government, which at the present moment is seeking friendly relations with the United States and reciprocity in natural products, should, at the same time, be creating a condition which will bring down upon it the wrath of the whole American press, advertising to the world the fact that Canada is deliberately taking a retrograde step in civilization." The Typographical Union secured the incorporation in the International Copyright act of 1891 the "manufacturing clause," which grants the protection of copyright only to works composed and

printed in the United States. In Canada, writes Mr. Wise,

the new Copyright act proposes to include a "manufacturing clause" in so far as printing is concerned, which the minister publicly avows is retaliatory upon the United States. If the States are to be punished—and who shall say they do not deserve it—probably the most appropriate weapon will be a rod of their own pickling. And whereas in time past America had on the surface everything to gain by pirating from England, now she has everything to lose by having her literary product pirated by Canada.

Mr. Wise reminds his countrymen that the world has learned a few lessons in honesty, or at least in "honesty being the best policy," in the last few years. It has learned that disposing of forest lands to political heelers, for instance, has resulted in denuding the country of pulp-wood, and Canada has seen the result in the United States and has established her conservation policy which provides for sowing as well as reaping. It should not therefore be a matter of mere conjecture as to whether Canada shall stunt the growth of her own native literature by copying the fatal mistake made by the Americans when they yielded to the temptation to steal, and strangled their own literature to such an extent that, in what seems to have been the most prolific period of writing among English-speaking peoples, or rather during the period of literary awakening as exemplified by the Victorian writers, only a few American authors forced their way to the front.

One of the worst results of piracy in the book world is that good works are badly

printed on poor paper and issued in a worse binding; and these cheap editions often contain matter not written by the author whose name they bear. As a notable instance of this, Mr. Wise cites Mr. Bryce's "The American Commonwealth," of which a pirated "new edition," containing "new chapters" impudently inserted without any intimation that they were not from Mr. Bryce's pen, was issued at the same time that the authorized second edition appeared.

It must be remembered that the reading public can only perform a certain amount of reading, the limit being set by time and inclination. If, therefore, to quote Mr. Wise further,

the reader for economical reasons limits his purchases to the cheapest, he will not only degrade

his taste, but put such a restraint on both author and publisher in his own country that we shall stand in as great danger of repressing our potential Canadian literature as the Americans did of strangling their own prior to 1891. As a matter of fact our danger as Canadians is infinitely greater, since, from our close proximity to our neighbors and the smallness of our population as compared with that of the States, we are much more likely to be Americanized than the Americans were to be Anglicized by British writers 3000 miles away. That the community of readers' interests is much closer between Canada and the United States than between us and England is attested by the fact that some millions of copies of American magazines come into Canada yearly as against a few hundred thousand copies from England. Our habits, customs, modes of living; our climate, our youth as a nation even, so closely approximate parallel conditions to the south of us that, putting aside the question of political absorption, our literature is in greater danger than was ever that of America.

HOW TRUSTS ARE CONTROLLED IN CANADA

ACCORDING to Prof. James E. Boyle, of the University of North Dakota, we need not go far in order to learn something in the matter of trust-control. In a thoughtful paper in the *Twentieth Century* (Boston), he writes:

The Canadian Parliament a year ago last May enacted a law for the regulation of "trusts" which it is wise for us now to compare with our Sherman law. Our rugged northern neighbors are ahead of us in banking and labor legislation, and now, for a third time, we behold them pass us in scientific law-making. This new legislation, known as the Combines Investigation Act, challenges the earnest attention of the industrial world.

The full title of the new act is "An Act to provide for the Investigation of Combines, Monopolies, Trusts, and Mergers," and its methods of procedure are as follow:

Six persons, British subjects, may, on applying to any High Court judge, secure an inquiry. The application, which must be in writing, must be very specific as to abuses.

If the judge is satisfied that a *prima facie* case has been made out, he is required to order an inquiry by a board.

On the receipt of the order from the judge, the Minister of Labor forthwith proceeds to appoint a board, impartiality being secured in the manner of selection. Thus, one member is appointed on the recommendation of the persons who signed the original application for investigation; another, on the recommendation of the persons named in the order as being parties to the alleged combine; and the third, on the joint recommendation of the other two members of the board, or, if no such recommendation be made, then the appointment is to be made by the Minister of Labor.

The expense of the two preliminary steps, as well as of all subsequent ones, is borne by the Government. Ten thousand dollars were appropriated for the administration of the act during the first year. The board has ample powers as to the summoning of witnesses and the production of books and papers. A "people's lawyer" may be appointed to the case, if considered necessary. The investigation cannot be sidetracked by legal technicalities, as in the United States Section 2 provides:

In deciding any question that may affect the scope or extent of the investigation, the board shall consider what is required to make the investigation as thorough and complete as the public interest demands.

Publicity is effected through the printing of the findings in the *Canada Gazette* and in the public press. If, after a hearing in which both sides take part, abuses and evils are found to exist, at least six remedies are offered:

- (1) Pressure of an intelligently formed public opinion.
- (2) If the trust enjoys protective tariff advantages, this tariff may be removed.
- (3) If the combine is aided by patent rights, the patent may be revoked.
- (4) The guilty combine which ignores the findings and continues to offend is guilty of an indictable offense and liable to a penalty of \$1,000 per day.
- (5) The findings of the Board may lead to cancellation of licenses under the Inland Revenue act, or
- (6) to the withdrawal of subsidies.

In comparing the United States with Canada in this matter, Professor Boyle points out that we each have a criminal code for

dealing with monopolies. We have also a Bureau of Corporations, but the latter can only secure information. The information must be acted upon either by public opinion or by the Department of Justice; and the latter can only proceed under the Federal Constitution as interpreted by the Supreme Court. Under this Constitution, the property rights of a corporation are "impregnable, and beyond the reach of the legislature, the executive, and the voters themselves." All the great combines in the United States have been formed since the enactment of the Sherman law; and Professor Boyle contrasts this law with the Canadian act as to actual intent and purpose:

The Sherman law aims to preserve *competition*.

The Canadian act aims to preserve a *fair price*.

The Sherman law (applying to interstate commerce, of course) says that "every contract, combination . . . or conspiracy in restraint of trade" is illegal.

The Canadian act says nothing is illegal. It considers combines a blessing, a natural, inevitable and desirable product of economic evolution.

The Sherman law says every person who monopolizes trade is a criminal.

The Canadian act says the monopolist shall divide his profits with the producers and consumers.

The Sherman law says certain courts may issue injunctions preventing restraint of trade and compelling competition.

The Canadian act accepts monopoly as the natural and desirable condition of many industries.

The Sherman law provides for forfeiture of any goods contaminated by a "contract in restraint of trade," and for a fine and imprisonment for a monopolist."

The Canadian act offers a remedy suited to the merits of the case.

The Sherman law offers the victim of oppressive combines a law suit in a Federal Court, if he have the requisite funds and the simple, childlike faith to undertake it. If he ultimately wins, "he shall recover three-fold the damages by him sustained, and the cost of the suit, including a reasonable attorney's fee."

The Canadian act offers the victim a simple, swift and thorough investigation and a speedy, adequate remedy, without expense to himself.

We shall do well to watch "carefully and sympathetically" the workings of Canada's attempt at trust-control.

A NEW DIAMOND FIELD IN GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

FOR some time past the principal use of German Southwest Africa to the mother-country has seemed to outsiders to be a training school for their military men in barbarous warfare, but now at last it seems this territory is beginning to "make good" in an economic sense, according to a recent lecture by Prof. Dr. Scheibe before the Royal Agricultural High School in Berlin.

An area one and a half times the size of Germany, for the most part a steppe of naked rocks with a thin and partial covering of wind-blown dust and sand, becoming mountainous toward the interior, and inhabited by but 10,000 whites and 60,000 natives, the lecturer rightly estimates that its future usefulness and denser population must depend on the discovery of mineral wealth. Of this it seems a good beginning has been made. Following close upon the heels of the discovery of rich copper-lead deposits, which are now in operation, comes the discovery of diamonds in the sands extending along the coast some 300 miles and inland a more or less indefinite distance of from six to twelve miles, from Conception Bay on the north to Roast Beef island on the

south, and up to the present time especially developed in the neighborhood of Luderitz.

The rock foundation of this region consists of ancient crystalline rocks, principally of schists, quartzite and crystalline limestone in thin belts running north and south, much tilted and interrupted by great masses of granite, which reaches the coast at Arch Rock, near which is a great mass of intrusive rock forming a high mountain intersected by many dark basaltic dikes. On this foundation rest sedimentary rocks of Tertiary age, sandstone and conglomerate, which evidently are the products of erosion from the older rocks, and show that the entire district was at that time beneath the sea. These deposits in turn have been partly destroyed by waves and wind and have fallen to pieces, forming a sandy or gravelly covering of greater or less depth, and of very variable coarseness, and it is this loose covering that has been found to contain the diamonds.

A peculiarity, however, of the loose sand and gravel is that it contains pebbles of chalcedony, a variety of quartz, which occurs partly as yellow, brown, green or black jasper, partly as yellow and red transparent

chalcedony, and partly as banded agate, and which is not found in the original rocks from which the loose covering is derived. It is supposed that the diamonds and the erratic chalcedony may have originated and been brought into the district from outside through the same process. It is found, as might be expected, that the wind has acted to concentrate the diamonds in places, but these places or pockets are very variable, so that it cannot be predicted that they will be found at all or in any definite quantity in any particular place. This makes an estimate of the average contents of the deposits, even of the most general character, very difficult and vague. Around Luderitz Bay good places may contain three to five diamonds, averaging one-seventh carat in weight to the cubic meter of sand, while the rich surface where the light material has been blown away by the wind often contains as many as twenty to forty such diamonds per cubic meter. Places in the Pomona district showed ten or more larger diamonds per square meter surface, which reckoned by volume would mean several hundred to the cubic meter. The size, although very variable, is on the average small, much smaller than that of the Transvaal fields, and yet the individual stones are of better quality. The exploitation is still largely by hand-washing, but machines are increasingly being employed. The output rose in 1910 to 800,000 carats of a value of about \$5,500,000, about one-fifth to one-sixth of that of the South African mines. The total contents of the field are valued at about \$125,000,000.

While nothing is known of the origin of



MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE NEW DIAMOND FIELDS IN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

the diamonds, they are supposed to have come from some area of "blue ground," which is their characteristic matrix in South African mines, and which was located either in the interior or at some point along the coast. From this area, which has now disappeared, the diamonds were probably washed by rivers or waves and carried to their present location.

ITALY'S SOCIAL CANCER—THE CAMORRA

IT has been well said that the value of a criticism or an opinion on any subject depends upon the amount of knowledge of such subject possessed by the person uttering it. From this viewpoint, no other writer could be considered so well qualified to tell "The Truth About the Camorra" as Signor Ernesto Srao, the well-known Neapolitan novelist and author of "The Head of the Camorra," whose articles, under the first-cited caption, have recently attracted so much attention in the *Outlook*. In an "Introduction" to the narrative, Baron Bernato Quaranta di San Severino states that Signor Srao "has devoted many years of his life to a close study of this criminal association, and

enjoys in Italy the reputation of having a profound knowledge of the entire subject."

EVOLUTION OF THE CAMORRA

The baneful forerunners and ancestors of the Neapolitan Camorristi were the Spanish *gamuri*, or brigands of the Sierras, who either exacted from their victims the money they had with them or shared in the profits of the business that had caused the travelers to undertake their journeys. Transplanted to the kingdom of the two Sicilies, "this abominable vegetation, with the vigor of a tropical flora, spread its roots through the muddy subsoil, powerfully fostered by the mis-

government and pusillanimity of the men then in power."

In the Italian offspring of the Iberian Camorra in Naples and Sicily the Spanish organization of brigandage has kept intact the innermost nature of its baneful existence. In the Naples Camorra, as in the Spanish brigandage, the essence and program of the society is organized extortion by means of intimidation and the brute force of the stronger. The most common form of extortion is imposition on the weak, in many cases fixed by a rigid proportional system or imposition on the proceeds of crime.

ITS CODE OF LAWS

As in other secret associations, there is in the Camorra a code of laws regulating the relations of the various ranks of its members.

There is a *capo 'ntrine*—a sectional head—and a *capo intsta*, or head-in-chief of the Camorra, a kind of president of the confederation of all the twelve sections into which Naples is divided and which are presided over by the *capi 'ntrini*.

Before 1860, real Camorrist disdained to use firearms. They considered that true courage could not be tested by such weapons. The dagger and the knife are the favorite arms whereby distinction are to be gained. The most severe discipline is maintained in the rank and file of the Camorra. Several social oaths are taken by the members, the chief of which is that known as the *Omertà*. The word signifies "humility," and "means the passive submission of all the members to the supreme will of their superiors, and to the internal law of not revealing to anyone, not even to one's brothers, mother, or wife, the moves, enterprises, and engagements of the society; never to denounce, not even at one's deathbed, any wrong suffered through a fellow associate, never to reveal even one's own murderer, never to have recourse to the aid of the law, but to avenge the offense with one's own hands, if possible, after having first laid the complaint before the natural judges or the Camorra tribunal. There is a High Tribunal as well as a Low Tribunal. The judges may meet anywhere, may condemn free Camorrist or convicts condemned to cellular confinement. In prison the decisions of the judges are conveyed by tapings on the partitions of the cells, made by fellow prisoners who clean out the cells.

The high-class Camorrist despises cowardly and vulgar crimes. He does not steal, does not commit extortions, but causes others to steal, to extort, so long as he gets the *sbruffo*—percentage due to him as "right of Camorra."

COÖPERATION WITH THE POLICE

The Camorra is frequently appealed to by the police to assist in recovering stolen property. Thus in 1901 the Baroness Nicotera, wife of the well-known statesman, lost her watch. The police failed to find it; but the loss having been reported to the Camorra, the watch was "mysteriously laid upon the Baroness's table with a note of apology." The gold snuffbox stolen from Count Michele Pironi was returned through the same agency.

The traditional kiss of investiture is a very old custom in the Camorra. Anyone who is victorious over his adversary has a right to the kiss on both cheeks. The kiss on the forehead signifies promotion to a higher degree. This is sometimes given in a public restaurant, by the whole of the members of a party.

HOW THE CAMORRIST IS MADE

In *La Revue* (Paris), M. Maurice Lauzel gives a description of how a Camorrist is made. Apprenticeship begins at the age of three.

The child is taught to beg and to steal such things as handkerchiefs, etc., and in a few years he has every chance of getting into prison.

But to become a Camorrist many serious proofs of courage are necessary—proofs of bravery, skill in the use of the knife. The candidate must pass through several grades. First he is a *garzone di mala vita*, but as soon as he gives satisfaction in this capacity by his bravery he may aspire to the next and higher grade of *picciutto 'e sgarro*. He may now offer to kill someone designated by the Camorra; but if there is no case of vengeance in hand, he is tested in a sort of dagger duel with a member of the society. If he gets wounded, he has the right to two more duels; but if he is wounded in all three he is not admitted to the Camorra.

Even now, should he be successful, he is only approaching the promised land. He cannot become a proper Camorrist till he has proved his valor in a great many other ways. At last, however, a clever assassination procures him the envied title, and the great day arrives when the association of bandits delivers to him his letters of nobility. It is an impressive ceremony. He has to swear to the solemn Camorrist seated round a table that he will never cease to be faithful to them, that he will continue to be the enemy of the authorities and of the police, and that he will never denounce the Camorrist whatever happens, but will love them above everyone else. This oath of fidelity and secrecy is taken on crossed knives. Henceforth the member enjoys all the privileges of a Camorrist. He practices the Camorrist virtues of discretion and humility.

Now he seeks infamous adventures which will earn him the esteem of his superiors and merit a

fine future in a penitentiary colony. If he manages to escape the carabinieri and the police, he will bring up his family in Camorrist fashion—parents, children, brothers, sisters, nephews, all cohabiting in one room. In this atmosphere of immorality and dirt the father will not fail to teach his children what he himself had to learn, for Camorristism is an hereditary evil. If he goes to prison he will be sure to meet many of his friends there. Finally, the good Camorrist attains the threshold of an honored old age—in the Camorra. He will never want for anything. Poor he will never be, because he participates in the gains of the band. Infirm and old, he is sure of succor, and when he dies his family will not be deserted.

WHAT IS NECESSARY TO STAMP OUT THE CAMORRA

The murder, two years ago, of the Italian-American detective, Petrosino, and the trial still in progress of thirty-six Camorrist for

murder, an account of which was given in the REVIEW of May last, have directed the attention of the Western world anew to this disgusting society. Should all the prisoners be condemned, Signor Serao does not think it would suffice to suppress the Camorra. He says: "You can imprison, segregate, disperse, terrify the Camorrist; they will reconstitute themselves, they will pour out new germs, will rear fresh adepts in the prisons." The whole trouble lies in the existence of the hovel, "the disgusting Neapolitan hovel, abominable nursery of evil, pestiferous place of moral degradation." Not until Naples has razed the hovel to the ground can any really successful war be waged on Italy's social cancer, and such a war would be a matter of international interest.

THE INFLUENCE OF CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN JAPAN—A JAPANESE VIEW

"WHO shall decide when doctors disagree?" When Baron Kikuchi was asked, at the close of a lecture delivered by him February 1, 1910, in Carnegie Hall, New York, on "The Intellectual and Moral Development of New Japan," whether Japanese civilization had been influenced by Christian missions, he promptly replied in the negative, adding, however, the qualification, "Of course, they have given inspiration to young Japanese students, through the characters of such men as Drs. Hebron and Harris, Fulbeck, Brown, etc." The Baron is President of Kyoto University, was some time Minister of Education in Japan, and might be supposed to be in a position to know. Yet now comes Dr. Sekiji Nishiyama (in the *Open Court*), who practically says that Baron Kikuchi, in intimating that the only beneficial influence of Christian missionaries on Japan has resulted from the high character of some of their number, is, as the man in the street would put it, "way off." The Doctor frankly says: "I am not a convert to Christianity, nor am I any too favorable to Christians; yet I have no prejudice against the Christian movement in Japan." He desires to answer "in a somewhat more affirmative way" the international question put to the Baron; and in doing so he contrasts the antithetical view of the latter with certain historical events in Japan. He writes: .

centuries ago Tokugawa Shogun, the Governor of Japan, realizing the undesirable influence exerted on the Japanese people by the Jesuit missionaries who had been brought by the Dutch and Portuguese to Japan in 1548, issued an order prohibiting the practice of Christianity.

Notwithstanding this edict, enthusiastic Japanese Christians did not change their belief back to Buddhism, but carried their pictures and images of Christ to the Japanese temple, and prayed to Christ there. The Government, ignorant of this fact, and supposing the people were praying to a Japanese god, concluded that a wonderful change had taken place in the belief of these Christian converts. This fact proves how deeply religious the Japanese are as a nation, in spite of the opinion of American critics who say that they are irreligious. Statistics report thirty thousand Japanese Christians.

Forty years ago there were scarcely any schools for girls in Japan. The national conviction was that girls were not worth the trouble of educating. Christian missionaries saw the difficulty.

They discovered the national neglect of the education of Japanese women, and started at once to establish a school for girls. By their efforts several schools were opened in different parts of Japan, and the Japanese girls who have been educated in these Christian schools have proved to our people the good results of the education of woman.

Finally the Japanese Government recognized the great importance of educating the girls and in 1890 the number of public high schools for girls was increased to seven! The government reports for 1903 stated that the number of schools for girls had increased to 155 and the total number of their students was 35,546, under the direction of 1094 women teachers. It should never be forgotten that, by word and deed, by work and inspiration, the Christian missionary gave a strong impetus to

The Japanese people were under the charm of Buddhism for more than ten centuries. Three

Japan in causing our people to recognize the vital necessity of the education of women.

As the result of this advance in education, a number of Japanese women are now physicians; many are trained musicians and artists; and Japanese girls are even entering the business world as clerks. These facts, says Dr. Sekiji Nishiyama, "could not even have been dreamed of in the visions of a poet twenty years ago, and prove how rapidly the Japanese people adopt, assimilate and actualize a good idea." And he has no hesitation in asserting that the good results of the education of Japanese girls, following the enthusi-

astic efforts of Christian missionaries, marked two great steps in the progress of Japan:

(1) an unchangeable belief in the desirability and necessity of the education of women, and (2) woman's position in Japanese society has been improved, because the Japanese girls who received an education showed that there was an undreamed-of capacity for companionship and efficiency in Japanese women.

The Doctor considers that the Japanese ought fully to appreciate the debt they owe to Christian missionaries in this respect, and that "this great contribution should be written in full in the history of the New Japanese civilization."

THE NEXT GENERATION OF GERMAN HOUSEWIVES—A FORECAST

YEARS ago, as the wave of commercial prosperity swept over Germany, a mournful critic bade German husbands beware of taking their wives to Paris or the Riviera lest they learn to imitate their sisters of other nations in extravagance and pleasure-seeking, and Germany lose her proud pre-eminence in frugality and domesticity.

Germany is more cosmopolitan now but we are relieved to hear that there are hopes of the homely Biedermeier qualities surviving even in the coming generation. The new German girl—the 1911 summer girl—is strangely similar to her Parisian model—if we are to believe Herr Paul Barchan in the *Neue Rundschau*—and yet under her frills of Chantilly there is no such matter. For our part we believe she has only stooped to conquer and her triumph is manifest in the interest her new departure in elegance has inspired. The satisfaction of her lord and master is apparent though he rightly rejoices to find her meek and dutiful still.

On the promenade, at the tea shops, at the Grünwald race track, and wherever one goes to see and be seen in Berlin, for some time past, we have all met a type of girl that we hardly knew where to place in the first joy of discovery. Are they foreigners or cosmopolitan *Berlinerinnen*? Race is betrayed nowadays most speedily in bearing and clothes. When we have overheard a few words and are at rest on the subject of nationality—"made in Germany!"—we ask again, Are these girls of good family who want to seem adventurous or are they young ladies who cling to their good birth as a saving trump? Or in Berlin too is the boundary line being effaced? She is about nineteen and has got over the ignorant superiority and pert combativeness of fifteen. The linden's green and her own budding time have brought her out to coquet with adventure and novelty, but be assured

—in her eyes pleads the deathless yearning for the wedding-ring! Under an impish, forward, turned up on one side, pot hat that seems to suggest and idealize the head so full of feather-light, feather-free fancies—are the bangs, the mane, the pony fringe—or whatever you like to call the fascinating stupid hair on her brow that makes the brow simpler, narrower, more femininely inexperienced and irresponsible. Woman has rarely invented such an apologetic mask for her perfidious lack of logic as this amusingly trimmed, thin idiotic fringe of curls. Half-boyish and half-doll-like—shaking off all responsibility—woman's chief aim for ages! What a comment on the cry for emancipation!

Her shoes are borrowed from the Parisienne, with short, pointed American toes, of suède and very tight. And this shoe has something of the charm of the bang in the capriciousness of the step, the queer diminutiveness of it. It is scarcely the much abused German foot now that was so solid and firm, created to follow her liege lord without unseemly tripping—the foot to which her foreign sisters so eagerly, gladly drew attention. And through practice in the hobble skirt she has nearly got over her habits of dragging one foot after the other and treading on the heel. Indeed, she lifts just a wee bit the knee. Verily, almost a Parisienne! In her tailor-made gowns one marks her diligent study of Gosé's illustrations in the comic weeklies, and of all the other translators of the *Bois de Boulogne* for the Unter den Linden public.

But for all that, when she appears in all her glory one can see how little at ease she is in this equipment of *Je-m'en-fiche* of the Bois and the Boulevards. From what latent instincts indeed could she muster the unconscious taking everything for granted, the animal sovereignty, and hub of the universe assurance that lends the Parisienne her dash, her brilliance, her supremacy? When the Berliner in trots along at the side of her youthful swain who is sartorially an American but in full atavistic consciousness of his Teutonic mastership of the *Braut*, she is all modesty, submission and sweetness. And her dear, good German shrimplike heart bleeds when he in the first stage of his ardor orders a taxicab. For sweet though it be to her new woman of the world vanity to drive off in state, the feeling of duty and economy bred of

generations in pure, still byways is rooted in her very feet and will not away for all the waving of her *Pleureuse* crest! For her soul does not ascend to the proud heights of her plumes. Thank heavens! Behave as she like, be her raiment as it may, under the lure of French fashion the good old-fashioned German mother's heart beats on faithful and steadfast. From the ribbons and gauds of the mischievous French kitten, the dear old German temperament—the woman's slow calm—has nothing to fear. The maid of 1911 would like best to darn her sweetheart's socks if darning were not too symbolic—irreverent, almost Biblical.

Herr Paul Barchan ends his hopeful prediction for the coming *hausfrau* with an exclamation from Heine. The lindens in Berlin's springtime bring out Heine as inevitably as the summer girl but both are this time in French attire.

"*Grattez l'élégante* and you will find the goose! The dear, kind, true and honest German goose.

"*Ma foi*, but that is good!"

JOURNALISM AND THE FUTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

IN the London *Contemporary Review*, Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency reminds the English-writing press in general and that of England in particular of a serious responsibility which it is given to ignore; namely, the responsibility of controlling, for good or for evil, the future of the English tongue. Certain languages have so stamped their personality on the human race that though dead they are alive forevermore. Greek, Hebrew, Latin, and Sanscrit are among these; and English and Italian will in time be added to them. As it is known that the ancient languages have grown and changed, and may possibly be passing on to dissolution, Mr. de Montmorency submits for discussion the question whether the English language has passed its prime, and is hurrying on "into new and apparently barbarous variations."

The problem is a difficult one. No other language, not even Sanscrit, has suffered such experiences as those which English is now undergoing. No longer merely the tongue of a little island in the north Atlantic, it is now a world-wide medium of thought and commerce. The task laid upon it is such a one as no other language has been asked to perform.

It has to endure the environment of the North American Continent, a region that is apparently capable of turning the black man white, and the white man red. In South Africa it has to compete with, and combine with, a dialect of the Dutch tongue, which has itself been modified by local conditions. . . . In other parts of Africa environment must also play its part. In Australia and in New Zealand, again, entirely different environments, must play a novel part in the lives of the people, and therefore in their tongue. The influence of India and the East we cannot neglect since we remember that English will be the language of the educated Indian of to-morrow. . . . The same is true of the Chinese. If the Far East

takes English to itself, one may well wonder what will become of the language.

It must be admitted that the geographical and racial aspects of the problem are sufficiently overwhelming. But there is another burden laid upon the already overburdened language. The specialist is forsaking Latin and is choosing English as his medium of communication; and so desperate are the straits of some of the philosophers that they have been compelled to use special printing type for special meanings. Beyond "the joint assaults of many races, new environments, and merciless specialists," however, and more alarming than them all, is the fact that English "has to tolerate the embraces of the journalists of the whole earth." Says Mr. de Montmorency:

Journalism is a good thing, and it might be a better thing. It is (in this country) honest and powerful, and it really does want to make the world a great deal better than it found it. But journalism has to do with many specialists, of kinds quite other than the scientific experts. . . . Many trades possess their own newspapers, and all possess their own vocabulary. Each sport has its own technical terms. . . . with the result that great numbers of painful technical words are imported into the spoken and written language.

Now if these words were merely spoken, they would doubtless die out, as a fashion changes. There is "no perpetuity in bonnets, and there used to be none in the shifting slang of the mart, the exchange, or the playing-field"; and "to adopt many of these hideous words into the language is comparable to the permanent use of crinoline."

Yet the Press tends to give a permanent value to words, and phrases, and even ungrammatical constructions, that are part of the stock-in-trade of the professions, or the trades, or the players of

the world. . . . Many thousands of jargons are straining the mother language in every direction, and the press is making the strain a permanent force, when it should be an evanescent trouble.

Assuming that we have to tolerate "the horrible shorthand of science, trade, and sport, and have to reckon with it as one of the forces that is threatening the existence of the language, "what is the press doing to counteract these besetting evil influences? *We must look to the press to save or ruin the language.* To quote Mr. de Montmorency further:

Does the press, in its leading and its special articles, and by means of its enormous organization, exercise the deliberate influence for the literary good of the language that the English-speaking race has the right to expect? In the case of certain editors and certain very well-known journalists, there can be no doubt that a deliberate effort is made to prevent the fouling of the well which is now taking place. But this is not true of the press generally, and it is not true of the press as an organized institution. The reckless use of adjectives in leading articles, in descriptive articles, as well as in the newspaper bills, is a disgrace to a literary people. The abuse of the adjective

by the entire press; the absence of responsibility as to the meaning of words; the looseness of construction in sentences; the entire neglect of English as a means of conveying exact ideas, are a disgrace to our press. Moreover, the worst offenders are in London. The provincial newspapers have often a sense of literature that is totally absent from a large portion of the London press. The reason is clearly not the pressure of time. It is true that leading articles are often written in haste, but, perhaps for this reason, they are often written in good, terse English. The offenders write themselves down in turgid special articles, that display the mind of a barn-yard cock.

The solution of the whole problem is in the hands of the journalists. In all other professions, severe tests are imposed before a man or woman can practice. In journalism "every quack is allowed to impose his quackery on the public." No man or woman should be allowed to exercise the profession of journalism until he or she has passed a searching examination in English literature and in the use of the English language. Such examinations might be held by the Chartered Institute of Journalists.

BERLIN AND PARIS, TWO MODERN FRENCH OPINIONS

I.—Berlin and Its People

FROM its beginnings, in a small fishing village which sprang up by a ford across the Spree in the twelfth century, until its attainment of the proud position of capital of the German Empire, Berlin presents a history more checkered than those of most the capitals of Continental Europe. There was nothing to indicate Berlin as the center of Germany. Ethnographically Berlin is on the German frontier. It is a colony of the Germanic race. The true Germany is on the Rhine and the Danube. Their city, torn by civil conflict; occupied on three occasions by an enemy; at one time—at the close of the Thirty Years' War—the Berliners dreamed of emigrating *en masse*. In *La Revue* (Paris) M. André Tibal gives an interesting narrative of the evolution of the city. We read:

It was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century that a distinctly Berlin type of citizen appeared. The fierce struggle with the soil and with circumstances had rendered the Berliner laborious, energetic, tenacious, preoccupied with material things, eager for knowledge, practical, disdainful of culture, letters, and art, devoid of enthusiasm, skeptical, ironical, and impertinent. In brief, an unsympathetic type, regarded by other

Germans with distrust, and with which they acknowledged only a distant kinship. But the Berliners were also distinguished by a lively sense of humor, a love of order, and by an unflinching regard for duty. They knew how to obey, and they had worthy princes over them. The motto of the Hohenzollern has always been: "Do what you ought."

The elevation of Berlin to the rank of capital of the Empire coincided with the advent of a new era of European life. No part of this transformation was more remarkable than that of Germany, and in no part of Germany was there more marked change than in Berlin. The population increased from 700,000 in 1867 to 1,000,000 in 1877; from 1,500,000 in 1888 to 2,600,000 in 1903; the present total being about 3,000,000.

The political capital became the industrial as well as the financial capital, and the center of an immense network of exchanges. It became also the center of the new mentality, of that which was termed "Americanism." The reason was simple: Berlin had always been an "American" city; the spirit of its citizens was as enterprising, as rugged, as prosaic and as devoid of prejudice as that of the settlers of the Far West. . . . From 1871 to 1880 there extended throughout Germany and through Berlin in particular a feverish period which has received the name of *Gründerzeit* (Bubble-period).

Industrial and commercial enterprises of the most venturesome description sprang up like mushrooms in a night. The kitchen gardens of the Tempelhof were purchased by land societies; the peasant owners, becoming rich in a day by the increased value of their land, were overwhelmed by their sudden acquisition of fortune; the crowd of Berliners migrated to the suburb of Tempelhof, where many-storied houses now reared themselves on high; and the Tempelhof people migrated to Berlin, there to become the prey of sharpers and adventurers. The State erected barracks and hospitals; factories raised their brick walls and tramways were laid from the capital to the new suburb.

With the great increase of population after 1871, Berlin was, so to speak, colonized a second time. The majority of the New-Berliners were those who came to seek their fortune in the capital. Unfortunately they acquired it too quickly, and they created a middle class which gives the tone to the capital, and whose members "have all the faults and the vices of parvenus."

Of the Emperor, M. Tibal paints the following word picture:

The present Hohenzollern suffers from the influence of his capital. Whereas William I by his *esprit* was the emperor of a nation of soldiers and aristocrats, William II, in spite of his entourage and his uniforms, is the emperor of a nation of bourgeois, of merchants and manufacturers. . . . Many of the faults and follies of the Emperor are due to the fact that he is a Berliner on the throne. Like his subjects in his capital, he loves pomp and show; he speaks too much and too loud, often inadvisedly. Like the Berliners he cannot keep still, is nervous, ever embarking upon some new enterprise. Moreover, like them he lacks taste and has evoked a never-failing source of raillery by the statues and monuments with which he has disfigured their city.

Of the Berliners themselves M. Tibal speaks hardly more complementarily.

The Berliner loves his house for its façade only. He spends in it only such time as is absolutely necessary for eating and drinking. Family life is but little developed. There are no circles of friends and relations. . . . The intimacy of home, for the Berliner, consists in sitting in his shirt-sleeves and slippers and in smoking a cigar in his bed-chamber.

As housewife, his spouse has great qualities; but she does not know how to make the dwelling comfortable and inviting. Like her husband, she is at once parsimonious and prodigal. She is full of pretensions; impolite to her equals and cruelly embarrassed in the presence of her superiors. She confounds affectation with good manners, and the world with the demi-monde. (I speak naturally of the middle class.)

It must be frankly stated that the men show no respect for women. There is no city where honest women have more to suffer in the street, in the tramways, and on the highways, from the insolence of the males. It seems that here the men consider any unaccompanied woman as their legitimate prey. . . .

Of Berlin architecture, M. Tibal has nothing good to say. It is "the triumph of industrialism in architecture." Unscrupulous architects, eager to produce quickly, have servilely copied the styles of every people and every epoch. Scandinavian is seen side by side with Moorish and Hellenic, without regard to climate, light, or the conditions of modern life. It is "an architecture for parvenus who desire pseudo-palaces of brick, plaster, and stucco."

Having said so much that is uncomplimentary, M. Tibal considers that he ought to say something favorable of Berlin and its citizens. He proceeds:

The condemnation and the eulogy of this city may be summed up in a single sentence: Berlin is a modern city, the most modern of all the cities of Europe. Its faults are not those of old age and decadence, but of youth and progress. Beneath these deformities and these follies, one detects an irresistible force of expansion which gives promise of great things. It remains for the citizens to create new ideals of worth, of esthetics and of morals.

II.—The Beauty of Paris

It is pleasant to turn to another article in the same magazine describing an interview with the famous sculptor Auguste Rodin. The narrator, M. Paul Gsell, the well-known critic, states that he was driving one morning with Rodin to the latter's studio in Paris. As Rodin gazed toward the city, bathed in the spring sunshine, he exclaimed:

How enchanting! What an adorable city! She allures and she intoxicates. One cannot love her moderately. One cherishes her as a gigantic and tutelary kinswoman. Is she not mother of us all? Does she not instruct us by the contemplation of the thousand marvels with which she is adorned? She is the head and visage of one of the most fortunate regions of the earth: the divine Isle of France. Her ancient edifices are full of charm. They are of different styles according to the taste of the centuries in which they were erected, but all resembling one another by a sort of joyous affability. . . . Paris teaches us grace, common-sense, proportion, and all the virtues which form the prize of social existence.

M. Gsell reminded his companion that every day some hotel of the 17th or 18th century was being destroyed; or that some impious addition or restoration was disfiguring the ancient masterpieces. To this, M. Rodin rejoined:

It is true. Paris, like all the great cities, suffers from vandalism. But why demolish? The old Parisian hotels . . . have an elegance that cannot be excelled. The artists who constructed them sought to please. The dwellings that they created

announced from their exteriors the refined politeness of their owners and adapted themselves to their spirit as a garment to a body. . . . The old principles have fallen into oblivion. They were very simple. Our elders knew that architecture was, like music and literature, a language. They knew that it ought to appeal not only to material wants, but that it should convey the sentiments of

joy or gravity, of pomp or modesty, of courage or mystery. They knew that doors, windows, pilasters, friezes, roofs, are as the touches on a great key-board with which the constructor makes a vibrant melody. . . . We must preserve the ancient dwellings. The commonest of them contains an educative virtue lacking in the more sumptuous mansions of to-day.

CHINA'S ATTEMPT TO TAKE A CENSUS

THE population of the great Middle Kingdom has always been an unknown quantity. The figures (433,553,030) issued by the Chinese Government as the results of an estimate made for the purposes of the apportionment of the indemnity to the Powers, were thought to be greatly in excess of the actual inhabitants. Works of reference place the total anywhere between 300,000,000 and 450,000,000. One of our ministers to China, Mr. Rockhill, in 1905, considered 270,000,000 to be nearer the mark. Mr. Rockhill's successor, Minister W. J. Calhoun, forwarded under date of May 4, 1911, a report prepared by a student interpreter at Peking on the results of a census of the Chinese Empire, completed in January last by the Chinese Board of the Interior. An analysis of this appears in the *Oriental Review* (New York) from which we give some condensed extracts.

The population of the entire empire is given as 329,542,000; that of China proper at 304,003,000, made up as follows:

China proper.....	304,003,000
Metropolitan district.....	5,671,000
Manchuria.....	14,917,000
Hsinchiang.....	2,491,000
Manchu military organization.....	1,700,000
Dependencies.....	760,000
Total.....	329,542,000

A native estimate, printed in the *China Tribune* (Tientsin), places the total at 438,425,000.

Referring again to Mr. Calhoun's figures, the population of Peking is returned as

1,017,209, and that of the metropolitan district as 4,654,219, neither of these items being included in China proper. Although far from perfect, compared with Western standards, the census of 1910 is probably the most accurate hitherto taken. The degree of its accuracy, however, rests entirely on the accuracy of the estimate of the size of the average family. This varies from 4.2 in the province of Kiangsi to 8.4 in each of the provinces of Kirin and Heilungshiang. No attempt to count the number of individuals throughout the empire was made, the general enumeration being limited to a toll of households. It should be stated that Tibet, the population of which is estimated at 6,500,000, is not included in the totals given above.

Earlier attempts at censuses, made by the Chinese Board of Revenue, have been as follows:

Census	Population
1761.....	190,257,000
1812.....	360,440,000
1842.....	413,021,000
1882.....	381,309,000
1885.....	377,636,000

None of these, however, can be accepted as data on which to base a comparison with the census of 1910. The latter, although only approximate, is in the opinion of Minister Calhoun, "worthy of a considerable amount of credence." As regards density of population, as the estimated area of China proper is 1,535,000 square miles, the average number of inhabitants per square mile is 198, while that of Manchuria is 41, the area of the latter being 365,000 square miles.



NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

A Warning to Investors

THE newspapers continue to report the ravages of a fraudulent "investment" concern whose career was recently brought to an end by the vigilance of the Post-Office Department. The victims are said to be numerous, one being a Pennsylvania man who invested \$7100 in worthless stock. The president of a small railroad in Pennsylvania was also an investor to the amount of \$15,000. Inspector Kincaide says that a bedridden woman was persuaded to mortgage her home to invest \$1000 in stock. Her husband was an invalid and her son was dying of consumption at the time the mortgage was made. Victims of the men under arrest exceed one thousand in number and the frauds are said to have netted them more than \$430,000.

What a pathetic picture of the hardships that are wrought by the host of financial knaves who, unfortunately, are still able to continue their nefarious business of deceiving an innocent and inexperienced public into buying worthless paper under the guise of "Investment Stock!" At the same time, what a striking commentary on the cleverness of "shady" promoters compelling enough to divert even the surplus funds of the shrewd and otherwise conservative business man into fraudulent enterprise!

In this connection it will occur again to many people to ask whether there is not some way in which such propositions may be nipped in the bud—destroyed at their very birth, before the opportunity is presented to their sponsors to collect any of their illegal tolls; some way in which an increasing proportion of the savings of the people, which have been going into worthless securities at the rate of many millions a year, may be diverted into legitimate enterprise where they will be secured against loss and where, by being honestly and judiciously employed, they will serve the twofold purpose of earning income for their owners and assisting in the nation's development.

One cannot help believing that the people themselves are at least partly responsible for the successes of these defrauding practices. Legislatures have indeed been slow in providing laws aimed at their destruction, but

publishers of many of the most influential magazines and newspapers have waged against them a relentless warfare in which, unfortunately, the number of victories won has not been justly commensurate with the amount of ammunition expended. The trouble is that there have been so many who have failed to take advantage of the financial education of the better sort which the periodical press has made available, especially during the last five years or more, even to the humblest of investors. All too frequently it has remained for experience of the bitter kind to teach the truth of the old adage, "All is not gold that glitters." The typical prospectus of the fake mine, the imaginary oil well, the impracticable invention, the worthless plantation and so on, is still replete with the glitter, but the wily promoters are the only ones who reap the golden harvest.

On not a few occasions in the past, reference has been made in these pages to the development of banking by mail and attention has been drawn to the admirable facilities offered by those bankers who have co-operated in that development to investors, large and small, for learning the truth about securities of whatever nature and for grounding themselves in the principles of safe, sound and conservative investment. One of these bankers—the head of a large firm in the Middle West—recently wrote some pertinent comment along these lines for the pages of a little magazine which he publishes. It is well worth quoting. He says:

The first rule in investment is "Investigate." The second rule is "Investigate." The third rule is "Investigate." The fourth and fifth rules I have forgotten. But your investigation should begin with your banker. The right kind of a banking house courts investigation both of itself and of the securities it sells. . . . Safety should be the first consideration of the investor. He is determining the whole financial policy of his future when he makes his first investment, and safety should be his watchword, once and forever. He should make it a rule to satisfy himself that the investment is safe before he even thinks of its other features, such as income and convertibility into ready cash.

The industry of the "get-rich-quick" promoters would soon die a natural death if investors generally would follow some such rule as this.

The Kansas Way

FINANCIAL sharks have for the most part found it comparatively easy to avoid actual transgression of the law. In practically all cases where they have come to grief it has been by reason of the use of the United States mail for the dissemination of their alluring, yet misleading literature. But even in that connection there have been notable instances where the postal authorities have found it impossible within the scope of their inquiry as restricted by departmental regulations to show real intent to defraud, though they must have been well enough satisfied in their own minds that the enterprises were not entitled to the confidence and financial help of the investing public.

These authorities, moreover, act only upon complaint and usually after most of the damage is done and beyond repair. There must really be cold comfort to the small investor whose savings have been dissipated through the placing of his confidence in dishonest promoters merely to see the guilty ones placed behind the prison bars.

Kansas, however, seems to have hit upon a method which, to a large extent at least, will serve to forestall such operations. A few weeks ago at the request of the Bank Commissioner J. N. Dolley, the legislature of that State passed what has come to be known as the "Blue Sky" law. This provides that every seller of stock must first procure a license from the State before he can transact business with the public. In order to get the license, complete information showing the exact character of the investment must be furnished to the State's officers. Commissioner Dolley is quoted as saying recently that out of three hundred or more applications of this kind received, he had felt himself justified in granting only eighteen, or about 6 per cent. Laws that will produce such results might well find a place on more of our statute books.

Insurance Stocks

MANY adventurers in stock-jobbing enterprises are finding insurance schemes attractive bait with which to catch the savings of a large body of over-credulous investors. Recently several cases have been brought to the attention of this magazine where not a little financial embarrassment has been caused whole communities through the operations of this class of promoters. In one case there actually appeared the danger that the local bank might find itself in an undesirable posi-

tion by reason of the unusual demands made upon it by depositors for funds to purchase stock in a newly organized life insurance company of dubious standing.

Still other cases might be cited where the stock-selling agents, spurred on by their successes in other sections, have given themselves to such grossly exaggerated statements that they have been challenged by some of the harder-headed citizens, who, at the same time, have taken occasion to point out to their neighbors the inconsistencies of the sales arguments. When seriously challenged it has usually been found that the agents decamp without further effort to interest the community.

The methods of the "get-rich-quick" insurance promoter are not dissimilar to those which have long been employed by promoters of mines, oil wells, new inventions and the like. The favorite argument is to point to what other companies of the same kind have been able to accomplish in earning dividends and to the high premiums which their stocks command whenever they change ownership nowadays. For example, just as scores of inventions, of all sorts, of doubtful commercial value have been financed on the basis of the claim that they were destined to repeat the success of the Bell Telephone, so the promoters of insurance schemes are approaching prospective investors with staggering arrays of figures relating to the old and solid companies that are known throughout the world.

What they fail to make plain, of course, is the essential fact that the first duty of an insurance company is toward its policyholders—that a long time must necessarily intervene before any company, no matter how carefully organized and efficiently managed, can provide adequate protection for them and at the same time make satisfactory returns to the stockholders.

At best, organization expenses are heavy, the cost of getting business is large and the very nature of the operations themselves entails a drain upon income against which new companies have invariably found difficulty in providing.

Perhaps the chief danger in promotions of this kind lies in the fact that in most cases the resources arising from the sale of stock are to too great an extent dissipated before business is actually begun. In other words, too large a proportion of the investors' money goes into the pockets of the stock vendors and too little into the treasury of the company. On this point Best's Bureau—the recognized authority on insurance affairs—has recently pub-

lished some significant figures. They show that of more than \$13,000,000 collected during the last six years on account of surplus for 139 new life organizations but \$7,844,000 remained—nearly 40 per cent. unaccounted for. And of still more significance from the investors' point of view, the figures show a total of only about \$320,000 paid in dividends—an average of but little more than 2 per cent. a year on \$25,280,000 of capital.

Street Improvement Bonds

EASTERN investors, whose education in "municipals" has taught them it is heresy to expect an income much if any better than 4 per cent. from that class of securities, marvel at the opportunities that are being offered to obtain 6 and 7 per cent. on bonds issued for street improvements in many of the large and important cities of the West.

"Where's the rub?" inquired one of these investors recently. "If such bonds are safe why do they bear so high a rate of interest?" These questions are typical of a substantial number of inquiries to this magazine during the past few weeks. They illustrate the greater interest which people have nowadays in high investment returns, and at the same time, the unfamiliarity of the average Easterner with conditions in that part of the country which lies beyond the Rockies.

Two reasons may be assigned for the fact that Western cities' street improvement bonds net such attractive income. First, there is the general proposition that the supply of money out there has not kept pace with the demand for it for intensive development. This has resulted in a higher average level of interest rates which borrowers of all kinds have to pay. Second, there is the general characteristic of the bonds themselves that the municipalities, as such, are not as a rule obligated to pay them principal and interest. They are not "municipal bonds" as that term is ordinarily understood.

What then is the security behind them? It is the land specially assessed to defray the cost of improvement, such as grading, curbing, laying of sidewalks, paving, etc.—improvements which are considered of local, rather than of general nature and as constituting special assets to the owners of the particular property affected.

It is the usual procedure to require the various property owners to pay into the city treasury their respective proportions of the total amount of the principal and interest of the improvement bonds and these specially

designated deposits in turn are paid out to the bondholders at stated times and in stated amounts. In most cases the payments are spread over a period of at least ten years, and the bonds are issued in "serial" form calling for the payment of such proportion of the principal each year as will extinguish the entire debt by the end of the period. In most cases also the bonds constitute a lien after taxes on the property affected and take precedence over mortgages.

It follows that the chief concern of the investor in street improvement bonds is over the character of the property which has to support the improvements. It is a matter of considerable importance to him whether the property be located in the business section of the city or in a well-established residential district where real estate values are fixed, where the income return from the property is such as to place beyond peradventure the owners' ability to pay promptly for the improvements, or whether it be located in some outlying district where values are speculative and where perhaps more than one owner may be found who is "land poor." In the latter case there is always present the possibility of default or delay in the payments on account of principal and interest of the bonds, and even though the investor might, in the end, get satisfaction in full, he would, under these circumstances, have been put to a great deal of inconvenience. It is this possibility rather than the danger of ultimate loss which appears to account largely for the high basis of net income on which such bonds sell.

Obviously, it is always to the investor's advantage personally to inspect the property which secures his bonds. The large majority unable to do this, however, have the alternative of purchasing through long-established and responsible bankers upon whose judgment more dependence may be placed than upon that of the inexperienced individual.

Corporation Shareholders

SOME impressive facts are being brought to light by the *Wall Street Journal's* inquiry as to who are the real owners of the nation's large railroads and industrial enterprises. Admittedly the inquiry was undertaken as an effort to "quash the indictments," of which so much has recently been heard, charging the big corporations with being owned by, and run entirely in the interests of, a few millionaire individuals or groups of individuals called "syndicates."

The figures thus far compiled show that the so-called "odd lot holders" of stocks are in reality the ones who have it in their power to direct the destinies of most of the important industries. They show that the small investor has staked relatively more than has popularly been supposed upon the future of corporate enterprise in general. As this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS goes to press, two hundred and twenty-four companies have reported a total number of shareholders for 1911 of 847,965, as against 422,372 five years ago, and 220,007 ten years ago.

Here are the statistics of seven of the country's representative railroad systems showing how their stockholders have increased in number since 1906:

NUMBER OF STOCKHOLDERS

Railroad	1911	1906	Per cent. Increase
N. Y. Central.....	20,486	9,766	109.7
Pennsylvania.....	66,520	40,153	65.7
Norf. & Western.....	4,612	2,955	56.1
Mo. Kan. & Texas....	3,342	1,018	228.2
Great Northern.....	16,969	2,702	528.0
Southern Ry.....	10,485	9,119	15.0
Atchison.....	30,000	17,420	72.2

Similar statistics relating to the nine largest industrial companies, dealing respectively in

steel, sugar, telephone and telegraph messages, rubber and agricultural implements, are even more interesting:

NUMBER OF STOCKHOLDERS

Industrial	1911	1906	Per cent. Increase
United States Steel.....	120,000	65,000	84.6
Am. Sugar Refining.....	19,551	12,312	58.8
Pullman Company.....	11,424	8,122	40.7
Am. Smelt. & Refining....	10,455	4,505	132.1
Am. Tel. & Tel.....	41,128	17,783	131.3
U. S. Rubber.....	8,500	3,500	142.8
Internat. Harvester.....	4,100	300	1,266.7
West. Elec. & Mfg.....	8,500	2,800	203.6
Amalgamated Copper....	13,200	7,300	78.9

But these figures do not of themselves tell the full story of the greater regard in which stocks of this character are coming to be held by the investing public. If one consider along with the changes which have taken place in the number of stockholders, the contemporaneous changes in the average number of shares owned by individual holders, the wider and better distribution becomes still more apparent.

Below we compare the present outstanding capitalization of the railroad and industrial corporations referred to, with their capitalization five years ago, and show the significant decreases in average holdings:

RAILROADS

	1911		1906	
	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING
N. Y. Central.....	\$222,729,300	108.7	\$178,182,700	182.4
Penna.....	453,872,300*	68.2	305,951,350	76.0
Norf. & West.....	91,961,000	199.3	87,460,300	296.0
M. K. & T.....	76,283,257	228.1	76,300,300	750.0
Gt. Nor.....	209,981,500	123.7	149,546,050	553.1
Southern.....	180,000,000	171.6	180,000,000	197.3
Atchison.....	279,692,230	93.2	217,197,530	124.6

INDUSTRIALS

	1911		1906	
	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING
U. S. Steel.....	\$868,583,600	72.4	\$868,583,600	133.6
Am. Sugar.....	90,000,000	46.0	90,000,000	73.0
Pullman.....	120,000,000	105.0	100,000,000	123.1
A. S. & R.....	100,000,000	95.6	100,000,000	221.9
Tel. & Tel.....	269,632,100	65.5	158,661,800	89.1
U. S. Rubber.....	75,000,000	88.2	71,111,600	203.5
Int. Harv.....	140,000,000	341.4	120,000,000	4,000.0
West. El. & M.....	40,186,287*	47.3	24,995,950	89.2
Amal. Copper.....	153,887,900	116.6	153,887,900	210.8

*Par of stock \$50, but computed here on the basis of \$100 par.

These statistics have some shortcomings. For instance, they do not indicate in the cases where there are two kinds of stock whether the growth of interest has been in connection with the preferred stocks, which are nearly always the more stable invest-

ment issues, or with the common stocks, which are nearly always purchased with some idea of speculation in mind. Perhaps, however, it is safe to assume that the wider appreciation is generally for the intrinsic merits of the former.

A REFERENCE LIBRARY FOR THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING WORLD

THE "ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA" (ELEVENTH EDITION)¹

FOR almost a century and a half the "Encyclopædia Britannica" has been the pride of British scholarship. Founded by a Scot it has passed through a succession of proprietorships until now the University of Cambridge, that ancient home of British learning, has become the foster mother, as it were, of the one great publishing enterprise which is recognized in a peculiar sense as England's own.

The present, known as the eleventh, edition of the world-famous work, is in many respects a departure from the "Britannica" which some of us knew in our school and college days, when a single revision occupied sixteen years and the youth who had just got out of knickerbockers when the wise men completed their labors on letter "A" was a staid man of family, with business or professional responsibilities, by the time "Z" was reached, and a new revision was called for.

In bringing out the Eleventh Edition wholly new methods have been employed and these have resulted in a practically simultaneous publication of the entire set of twenty-eight volumes, covering all the letters of the alphabet, leaving only the index volume to be completed later. This in itself was a great achievement. It meant a perfection of staff organization and a completeness of editorial equipment such as no like undertaking ever possessed before. Moreover, it should be noted in this connection that none of the earlier editions of this work drew so heavily on non-British sources. America's representation, both in subjects treated and in the authorship of articles, would almost suggest that the old name "Britannica" be changed to "Anglo-Americana." This, of course, necessitated the employment of an American group of editors and of many American staff contributors.

One hundred years ago biography was regarded as beneath the dignity of the ponderous "Britannica." It was a real innovation when sketches of dead Britons began to appear in its classic pages. One publisher quit the job in a huff because of this radical change. What would he say of live Britons and even live Americans? In the Eleventh Edition the practice, consistently followed for many years, of excluding all living persons from the biographical record has been overruled. Greatness is no longer compelled to achieve the common oblivion of us all in order to gain recognition in the "Britannica's" authoritative pages. In range of material, biography now forms one of the richest departments of the work, and the American representation in this as in other features of the encyclopædia leaves little to be desired. No other work of like scope contains so many sketches of commanders in our Civil War, both Federal and Confederate. All in all, no other general reference work with which the present writer is familiar is so satisfactory in its treatment of American biography in general.

Other American subjects receive in the present edition a degree of attention that was never ac-

corded them before. The "Britannica" is not and should not be a gazetteer, yet its editors have made a remarkably comprehensive selection of geographical topics. In turning its pages one is almost startled to find a column of information about his native town in the Middle West,—a place that had never been thought worthy of so much as a "stickful" of type in any American reference book. In other and more important fields of knowledge the same catholicity of selection and treatment has been observed. Perhaps it is an indication of the relatively more important place that America holds to-day in the world's civilization, as well as a tribute to the editorial genius that conceived and brought to fruition this monumental work, that every one of the twenty-eight volumes is alive with the intellectual and material progress of the new world. It was once a complaint in this country, which was not without some justification, that the "Britannica" remained insular in its viewpoint and contracted in its range. This complaint no longer holds good. American institutions and progress are so fully presented in the pages of the Eleventh Edition, and this presentation is made so largely through the contributions of American writers, that the old charge of insular narrowness may be dismissed and forgotten.

On the other hand, those features of the "Britannica" that made it long ago the great repository of learning for the English-speaking race are preserved and strengthened in the new edition to a remarkable degree. In the domain of science the encyclopædia loses nothing of its authoritative character. Some of the articles, it is true, are briefer than in former editions, and one notes a tendency to avoid overloading with technical details. It would be a great mistake, however, to infer that these topics are cursorily treated. One reason why some of the articles are shorter is that the old practice of gathering all material under a general head into one article has been, to a great extent, abandoned, for the more practical and common-sense method of treating the specific topics subordinate to a single large department of knowledge under separate heads. Under abstract philosophical themes one no longer looks for descriptions of concrete developments, but these are found under their proper specific titles. In many other ways, to which it is impossible to allude here, the "Britannica" has been completely modernized, and made a practical and useful ally of the busy man of affairs as well as of the scholar and man of letters. The twenty-eight volumes, as now arranged, form not only a great storehouse of twentieth-century learning, but a useful, working library which goes far to meet the needs of any man or woman who desires to partake in some degree of "the best that has been thought and said in the world."

¹ The Encyclopædia Britannica. Edited by Hugh Chisholm. Cambridge University Press (Branch office of publication, New York). 29 volumes, illustrated. \$4 each.

THE NEW BOOKS.

THE MODERN STATE

WITH so much talk and writing about the realization of a world state as has been brought forth during the past few years, particularly at this moment, when the Senate has been considering the epoch-making treaties of arbitration with Great Britain and France, there is particular interest and profit for the student of world politics in Dr. David Jayne Hill's volume, "World Organization as Affected by the Nature of the Modern State."¹ Dr. Hill has been working out for years his theory that modern international relations show a growth of what he terms jural consciousness among all the civilized nations; that the modern state embodies this consciousness; and that it is the earnest of the future world state. By world organization Dr. Hill means "the task of so uniting governments in the support of the principles of justice as to apply them not only within the limits of the state, but also between states." In developing his idea, Dr. Hill considers "The State as an Embodiment of Law"; "The State as a Juristic Person"; "The State as a Promoter of General Welfare"; "The State as a Member of Society"; "The State as a Subject of Positive Law"; "The State as a Mediator of Guarantees"; "The State as an Armed Power"; and "The State as a Justiciable Person." As a conclusion to his scholarly, closely woven argument, Dr. Hill asserts that "the development of the modern state has greatly facilitated the mutual understanding of the nations, and has both deepened and enlarged their sense of community." While the process is not yet ended, Dr. Hill believes that we may reasonably entertain the hope that within the next three centuries "the energies of mankind may be more and more diverted from plans and preparations for mutual destruction, and devoted to united helpfulness in overcoming vice, misery, disease and ignorance—the common enemies of mankind." The chapters of this book were originally eight lectures delivered before the Columbia University, on the Carpenter Foundation, in March of the past year. They embody the ripened thought of many years of study and research, and complement, as it were, Dr. Hill's other monumental work brought out some years ago, "A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe."

WAGNER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY

The authorized translation from the German of the Wagner autobiography has at last appeared. This two-volume work entitled "My Life,"² rendered into English from the notes of the great composer as dictated to his wife, Cosima Wagner, sets forth in simple, telling language the "unadorned veracity" of the composer's private life and public achievements. Since the value of this, as the composer says himself in the preface, consists in its detailed truthfulness, all the statements had to be accompanied by precise names and dates. Therefore the great music master refused to have the

autobiography published until after his death. He reveals his very heart itself in all its big sincerity in his tributes to the sympathy and support of the hosts of friends, including Liszt, whose health enabled him to make his music dreams come true. All his hopes and fears, his greatneses and pettinesses, are set forth without fear or hesitancy. A perusal of the work will quite destroy the faith of those who have placed Wagner among the gods. It will show his faulty humanity, but, at the same time, it cannot fail to arouse admiration for the almost divine patience and perseverance with which the composer held his way along the wearisome road of suffering, domestic infelicity, and baffled hopes, until he had achieved the mountain heights of his art. The closing chapter gives an account of the eleventh hour rescue that came from the King of Bavaria. The frontispiece of the first volume is a portrait of Wagner as he appeared in 1842, and that of the second a reproduction of the well-known painting made in 1872, by the artist Lenbach.

TWO OF THE SUMMER'S NOVELS

For one reason or another, the male characters in W. J. Locke's novels have made a more distinct impression on the minds of his readers than his women characters. Such creations as "Marcus" and "The Beloved Vagabond" could not fail to dominate the stories into which they entered. In Mr. Locke's latest effort, "The Glory of Clementina,"³ this distinction passes from hero to heroine, for in "Clementina" herself is concentrated all the verve of the narrative. A new type of English heroine Clementina undoubtedly is,—a mature woman when the story opens, successful in her career as an artist, odd and brusque of manner, frank and outspoken to a degree, yet devoted wholeheartedly to the happiness of others, and finally, just short of forty, falling in love in the most artless, old-fashioned way and revealing the unsuspected "glory" of genuine womanhood. Such is "Clementina," and in depicting her unusual—possibly even abnormal—traits Mr. Locke is at his best. "Dr. Quixtus," is not wholly unfamiliar to the readers of this author's earlier novels, and the other characters, while engaging, call for no special comment.

"Love's Pilgrimage,"⁴ Mr. Upton Sinclair's new novel, is one of the frankest stories dealing with the marriage institution that we have ever seen. It is called, in the advertising prospectus, "an extraordinarily able specialized study of two egos working toward adjustment." It does indeed deal with certain fundamental human physical and emotional experiences, set forth with Mr. Sinclair's truly splendid contempt of sham. The hero and heroine, however, not being normal beings, but highly over-sensitive creatures, the interpretation the author attempts of their emotional crises is not likely to contribute much toward the solution of the problems of mankind and woman-kind in general. The style is closely woven and the interest well sustained throughout the more than six hundred pages of the story.

¹ World Organization and the Modern State. By Dr. David Jayne Hill. New York: Columbia University Press. 214 pp. \$1.50.

² My Life. By Richard Wagner. Dodd, Mead & Co. 2 vols., 1454 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ The Glory of Clementina. By W. J. Locke. Lane. 367 pp. \$1.30.

⁴ Love's Pilgrimage. By Upton Sinclair. Mitchell Kennerley. 663 pp. \$1.35.

ESSAYS AND LITERARY CRITICISM

"A Defense of Prejudice and Other Essays," by John Grier Hibben, Professor of Logic, Princeton University,¹ argues for a new mental attitude toward that activity of the human mind known as prejudice, and includes, with other valuable material, a discussion of the philosophical theories of Fichte, as opposed to the Zarathustrionism of Nietzsche. Professor Hibben seeks the reason for considering prejudice as an intruder among the sober activities of the human mind, and contends that it admits of a rational defense. Since all truth rests more or less upon a credit basis, may we not give place to prejudice, the action of a subconscious reasoning? A man's prejudices determine the timbre of his character. What were the immortal Johnson of Boswell, or Carlyle, without their prejudices? Mr. Hibben regards the universe, with Fichte, as the objectified will of man, knowledge as a living spirit. The chapters entitled "The Dialectic Imagination" and "The Superfluous in Education" are of particular value to educators. Mr. Hibben's style is lucid, his choices of words happy in their simplicity. The essays are as readable as those of the late Professor James.

The history of the development of the English novel is set forth by William J. and Coningsby W. Dawson in "The Great English Novelists," a two-volume edition of selected scenes from the masterpieces of fiction.² The introductory essay and notes give careful attention to the evolution of literary taste as expressed in the novel. The selections are arranged according to subject and portray love scenes, historic personages, epics of conflict, humor, and the place of children in fiction. Marion Crawford writes: "A novel is after all a play, and perhaps it is nothing but a substitute for a play with live characters, scene shifting and footlights." Upon the basis of this theorem, "The Great English Novelists" is a program of the best acts of the novels that have become classics.

Thomas Hill Green, late master of Balliol College, Oxford, is best known for his translations of Plato and his attack upon the materialistic philosophy of David Hume. This month brings us a reprint of one of his essays "The Value and Influence of Works of Fiction,"³ an essay much used by advanced classes in the theory of prose fiction and especially valuable because written from a philosophical point of view. In this work, we leave the material of fiction for the analysis of its message; we proceed from the husk of mere words to the beauty and truth which they contain. Green considered the novel to be the great leveller of intellects and creator of public sentiment. The appendix contains selections from the "Memoirs" of Green by R. L. Nettleship and a quotation from Hegel which upholds Green's views concerning fiction and its values.

Among the collections of essays this month, we have a volume entitled "Miscellaneous Studies," by Mr. Walter Pater.⁴ Earlier in the year "Greek Studies" was issued, which dealt with Mr. Pater's contribution to the study of Greek art, mythology, and poetry. This later volume has no unifying principle, but consists of scattered contributions

to periodicals, which no doubt Mr. Pater, had he lived, would have subjected to revision before permitting them to appear in permanent form. Students of Mr. Pater will be glad of this collection as it contains many essays of exceeding beauty, hitherto accessible only in the files of magazines. "Prosper Mérimée and Pascal," "Raphael and Art Notes in Northern Italy," "The Child in the House," "Apollo in Picardy," and (added with some hesitation, the editors confess), the early essay, "Diaphaneite." This last was one of the papers that first made Mr. Pater's unique literary gifts known to the circle of his Oxford friends. Among the so-called euphonists, the stylists, Pater stands for the sexless beauty of form in literary art and his productions may be compared to sculptured figures. It is easy to image Stevenson as a painter, dabbling on canvas the vivid coloring of his stories of adventure, or Hilaire Belloc mixing the palette of a Puvis de Chavannes; but Pater works in marble. It is often tinted *couleur de rosé*, or veined with delicate and shadowy stenciling; but marble it is—perfected as Pater writes of the art of Raphael, by "a thousand reverential retouchings."

The Columbia University Press issues a volume of lectures on the art of literature.⁵ The preface—"Approaches to Literature,"—is by Prof. Brander Matthews and the lectures are by other members of the faculty of Columbia University. They deal with different phases of the ancient and modern literature of every race and nation. The chapters, "The Renaissance," by Jefferson B. Fletcher, and "Indo-Iranian Languages," by A. V. W. Jackson, possess great charm of style, a quality very desirable in lectures intended for publication. Professor Trent contributes a chapter, "The Cosmopolitan Outlook," and Professor Spingarn concludes the collection with a paper on "Literary Criticism." There is insistence upon the fact that—"All passes; Art alone, enduring, stays to us."

BOOKS OF VERSE

"American History by American Poets,"⁶ edited by Nellie Urner Wellington, the author of "Historic Churches of America," is a collection of patriotic poems dealing with the birth and growth of the nation from the time of the Norsemen down to the close of the Revolution. Several specimens of rare historical poetry may be found in this volume,—Arthur Guiterman's "Quivira," "The Death of Goody Nourse," by Rose Terry, and Barret Eastman's stirring ballad, "How We Burned the Philadelphia." For school and reference purposes, this volume is admirable and the material is arranged with taste and judgment. The appendix contains notes concerning the historical basis of the poems.

"Shapes of Clay" and "Black Beetles in Amber" are volumes of verse from the collected works of Mr. Ambrose Bierce.⁷ Mr. Bierce's ability as a satirist is well known and this fugitive verse published in periodicals and newspapers is worthy of perusal for its comment on current events, its keen satire and ironical humor. A writer of less forcefulness might hesitate to preserve in permanent form the mixture of stab and balm found in these newspaper rhymes; but the bitterness that

¹ A Defense of Prejudice and Other Essays. John Grier Hibben. Charles Scribner's Sons. 183 pp. \$1.

² The Great English Novelists. 2 vols. By William J. and Coningsby W. Dawson. Harper & Bros. 243 pp. \$1.50.

³ The Value of Works of Fiction. By Thomas Hill Green. Ann Arbor Press. 80 pp. 65 cents.

⁴ Miscellaneous Studies. By Walter Pater. Macmillan Company. 254 pp. \$2.

⁵ Lectures on Literature. By Members of the Faculty of Columbia University. Columbia University Press. 404 pp. \$2.

⁶ American History by American Poets. Edited by Nellie Urner Wellington. Duffield & Co. 455 pp. \$1.

⁷ The Collected Works of Ambrose Bierce. 4 vols. Neale Publishing Company. 375 pp. \$25.

so often underlies the dash and verve of Mr. Bierce's fluent pen is the righteous indignation that refuses to keep silence in the presence of false pretense and injustice. The lines "Æsthetics" and "To Oscar Wilde," written in 1883, are excellent specimens of Mr. Bierce's cleverness, in discerning the trend of public sentiment.

A little volume of poems, most of them written with the unquenchable buoyancy of youth, but with some fine poetic lines, comes from the pen of Shaemas O Sheel, under the title "The Blossomy Bough."¹ The two poems: "The Poet Praises His Lady's Bright Beauty" and "They Went Forth to Battle But They Always Fell" are particularly fine in thought and diction.

MEMORIALS OF STEVENSON

The letters of the late Robert Louis Stevenson are offered in a new edition rearranged in four volumes, with the one hundred and fifty new letters selected and edited by his friend Sidney Colvin.² Six years before Stevenson's death, he gave his stepson, Mr. Lloyd Osbourne, a sealed paper to be delivered after his death to Mr. Colvin. When the end came and the papers were opened, it was found to contain a request that Mr. Colvin prepare for publication selections from his letters and a sketch of his life. In 1895 the "Vailima Letters" were published and in the autumn of 1899, the "Letters to His Family and Friends," while the task of writing Stevenson's life was given over to his cousin, Mr. Graham Balfour, who completed it two years later. The one hundred and fifty new letters date from all periods of Stevenson's life and are not weightily concerned with the private affairs of either Stevenson or his friends. They are in main about himself—"confessions, speculations, gay notes and observations, snatches of remembrance and autobiography, moralizing on matters uppermost for the moment in his mind, comments on his own work or other people's, or mere idle fun and foolery." In style they are conversational, detached of utterance and free of vocabulary, often peep-holes into the domains of his fascinating yarns. The earlier letters, notably those penned to his mother, reveal him as Ariel—quick with a "spirit of air and fire." A nostalgia of spirit breathes from the letters in later years—a yearning that drove him to devise means to make life livable for others, because he had found it to be a continual battle against physical depression and weakness.

In a letter to Henley he writes a rhythmic invocation to art, ending with "Enter God," and adds below,—"Ay, but you know, until a man can write that,—Enter God,—he has made no art." Bits of verse are interspersed freely throughout the letters—verse less charming, less musical than his prose. The following lines of prose, from a letter to the Hawaiian Princess Kaiulani, during her visit to Scotland, are exceptional for their musical quality. "Written in April to Kaiulani, in the April of her age, and at Waikiki, within easy walk of Kaiulani's Banyan. When she comes to my land and to her father's and the rain beats on the window (as I fear it will) let her look at this page—it will be like a weed, gathered and pressed at home, and she will remember her islands and the

shadow of the mighty tree, and she will hear the peacock's screaming in the dusk and the wind blowing in the palms, and she will think of her father sitting there alone."

Along with the new edition of the "Letters," comes another Stevenson volume—"Lay Morals and Other Papers," with a preface by Mrs. Stevenson.³ The essay, "Lay Morals," is the projected treatise on morals which was drafted at Edinburgh in 1879, and with it are included several unfinished stories and the famous pamphlet written in defense of Father Damien. This unfinished work of Stevenson's is the saddest thing he has left to us; it is like a web left on a loom, the pattern incomplete, the shuttle half drawn through the warp, the bobbin's lying in an idle tangle of colors. Its import passes beyond our comprehension—into the world of the inchoate, the unborn; it rests within the dust of him who sleeps at Vailima.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

"A White-Paper Garden," by Sara Andrew Shafer,⁴ is a story of a garden on paper—a garden that existed only in the heart and love of a woman shut up in the city, far away from tree and blossom. It is divided into twelve essays, one on each month of the year, and is illustrated with really beautiful photographic reproductions of garden scenes. The inscription reads "To everyone who ever gave me a flower," and the pages are filled with the joy and beauty of the flowering earth, with gardens for the gardenless. It fulfills the purpose of its making, if as John Henry Newman says—"By a garden, is meant mystically a place of spiritual repose, stillness, peace, refreshment, delight." There is much of helpfulness and cheerful philosophy in this volume, wearing the disguise of garden lore.

"Some Essentials in Musical Definitions for Historical Students," by M. F. McConnell,⁵ is a compilation of definite musical information in available form, for the use of students. Its arrangement is admirable, its definitions concise and free from danger of misinterpretation. An appendix of the names of noted composers, performers, and "litterateurs," is included in this useful volume.

An excellent English translation of "Chushingura," one of the most famous of Japanese folk-lore romances, has been brought out by the Nakanishi-ya Book-Store in Tokyo.⁶ The original version, in lyric form, of the famous Japanese folk-story of the forty-seven Romans, is by Takeda Izumo, Miyoshi Shoraku and Namiki Senryu. The English translation, which is excellently made and bears all the marks of being a faithful rendering, is by Jukichi Inouye. The vendetta in Japan is of century long existence. It began in the early years of the Toyugawa Shogunate, and continued for more than two centuries. The action of the Chushingura took place in the year 1703, and a few months later a play founded on it was put on the stage. The illustrations in this volume are in color and in the style of the period.

¹ Lay Morals and Other Papers. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Scribner's. 316 pp. \$1.

² A White-Paper Garden. By Sara Andrew Shafer. A. G. McClurg Co. 292 pp. \$2.50.

³ Some Essentials in Musical Definitions for Historical Students. Compiled by M. F. McConnell. Oliver Ditson Co. 102 pp. 75 cents.

⁴ Chushingura. By Takeda Izumo, Miyoshi Shoraku and Namiki Senryu. Translated by Jukichi Inouye. Nakanishi-ya Book-Store. 269 pp., ill. \$2.

¹ The Blossomy Bough. By Shaemas O Sheel. Published by Shaemas O Sheel, through the Franklin Press, New York. 104 pp. \$1.

² Letters of Robert Louis Stevenson. 4 vols. Edited by Sidney Colvin. Scribner. 1531 pp. \$4.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

CONTENTS FOR OCTOBER, 1911

The "House of Governors".....	<i>Frontispiece</i>	Théophile Delcassé (portrait).....	427
The Progress of the World—		Stolypin, Russia's Man of Iron (portrait).....	428
The Conference of Governors.....	387	The Boy Scouts of America.....	429
Problems Common to the States.....	387	By DAN BEARD	
State <i>versus</i> Federal Authority.....	387	With illustrations	
The States and the Nation.....	388	Economy of the Motor Wagon.....	439
President Taft's Trip.....	388	By WALTER WARDROP	
San Francisco's Exposition.....	390	With illustrations	
Maine's Indecisive Vote.....	391	New York's Municipal Music.....	451
State and City Elections.....	391	By ARTHUR FARWELL	
New York's New Charter.....	392	With illustrations	
Dr. Wiley Vindicated.....	393	The Story of the Civil War Told by	
Cultivating a Popular Art Instinct.....	393	Photographs.....	459
The Boy Scouts.....	394	By GENERAL HORATIO C. KING	
A New Kind of Revival.....	394	With portraits of veteran contributors	
Coöperative Effort.....	396	Federalism in Canada and the United States.....	471
Agricultural Conference.....	396	By ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE	
American Aviation Meets.....	396	Industrial Courts.....	477
Long Cross-Country Flights.....	396	By HELEN L. SUMNER	
Postmen and Scouts of the Air.....	398	Leading Articles of the Month—	
International Sports.....	398	Football Neither a Game Nor a Sport.....	481
Western Union Report.....	399	Organized Labor and Industrial Efficiency.....	482
Improving the Transatlantic Cable Service.....	399	The Papal Sovereignty.....	483
Progress in Reorganizing the Trusts.....	400	The Theft of the "Mona Lisa".....	485
The Stock Market.....	400	Israel's, Holland's Master Painter.....	487
Germany's Financial Troubles.....	400	The Sculptor Rodin's Views on Art.....	488
American Ships Planned for the Panama Canal.....	401	Gabriele d'Annunzio as Art Collector.....	490
Trade with Central and South America.....	401	Hagenbeck as an Educator.....	491
Making Sure of Competition.....	402	Sultan Mehmed V, As Seen by Mr. Stead.....	492
Revised Cotton-Crop Estimates.....	402	What the Turks Think About Morocco.....	494
The Year's Yield of Grain.....	402	The Counter Revolution in Russia and Its	
The Election in Canada.....	402	Effect on the Jews.....	495
Position of the Conservatives.....	403	Should Spain Intervene in Portugal?.....	496
Preparing for the Election in Mexico.....	405	Oversea Ballads in Kentucky Valleys.....	497
Candidates and Platforms.....	405	The Coronation as Seen by a Frenchman.....	499
Portugal's First Regular President.....	406	The Subsidence of the Soil in the Netherlands.....	500
End of the British Strike.....	406	Honduras, a Country of Many Possibilities.....	501
Agreeing About Morocco.....	408	Higher Education for Women in Russia.....	502
Rumors of War.....	408	The Dardanelles and the Bosphorus.....	503
Some Arguments on Both Sides.....	410	With portraits and other illustrations	
Storm, Flood, and Fiery Lava.....	410	Finance and Business.....	505
Hunger, Strikes, and Riots.....	410	A New Interpretation of Christ.....	509
Spain Again in Trouble.....	411	The New Books.....	510
Russia's Premier Shot Down.....	412		
The Revolt in Sze-Chuen, China.....	413		
Reorganizing the Navy.....	414		
Change of Cabinet in Japan.....	414		
Utilizing the Carnegie Peace Fund.....	414		
With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations			
Record of Current Events.....	415		
With portraits			
Cartoons of the Month.....	420		
Von Kiderlen-Waechter (portrait).....	426		

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"THE HOUSE OF GOVERNORS," AT SPRING LAKE, N. J., LAST MONTH

First row. Norris, Mont.; Hay, Wash.; Kitchin, N. C.; Cruger, Okla.; Harmon, Ohio; Wilson, N. J.; Tener, Pa.; Pothier, R. I.; Glasscock, W. Va.
 Second row. O'Neal, Ala.; Carey, Wyo.; Gilchrist, Fla. (slightly in the rear); Plaisant, Me.; Aldrich, Neb.; Wills, Ky.; Hadley, Mo.; Crothers, Md.; Mann, Va.; Smith, Ga.; Shatrouh, Colo.
 Third row (beginning directly in back of Governor Plaisant): Spry, Utah; Mc Govern, Wis.; Fos, Mass.; Burke, N. D.; Hawley, Ida.; Stubbs, Kans.; Vessey, S. D.
 Back row. Secretary Jordan and ex-Governors Quahby (N. H.) and Fort (N. J.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 4

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*The
Conference of
Governors* After the adjournment of Congress, which was duly chronicled in these pages last month, the country settled down to a period of comparative rest from political agitation. With only one or two legislatures in session and active campaigns in progress in a scant half-dozen States of the Union, September was a dull month, politically. The general apathy was relieved, however, by the meeting of governors at Spring Lake, N. J., and the transcontinental journey of President Taft. The "House of Governors," an outgrowth of a conference called by President Roosevelt at the White House in May, 1908, has now, in the words of Governor Wilson, "released itself from federal guidance" and is an independent body. As regards geographical representation, it is a national body; at Spring Lake thirty States were represented by their executives and no important section of the country, speaking broadly, was without representation. The West, the Middle West, and the South may have seemed at times to take a more active part in the discussions; but sectional issues were not at the front, nor were the divisions on sectional lines.

*Problems
Common to
the States* In some former meetings of the "House of Governors" there has been discussion of problems connected with conservation and other matters in which the national government shares responsibility with the individual States; but there is a great range of activities that the States cannot share with the government at Washington, even if they would. At the same time there is a striking similarity in the nature of the administrative and legislative problems that are constantly presenting themselves, in one aspect or another, to many of the States. There is no reason why California should not profit from the experience of Wisconsin in

the regulation of public-service corporations or in the exercise of any other function that properly falls within the sphere of State activity. There is, in fact, every reason for seeking to bring about coöperation between the States in attacking their common problems and a broader intelligence on the part of their executives regarding what has been done toward their solution. Uniformity of State legislation on certain topics, notably divorce, may be highly desirable, but even if uniformity were never attained, there would still be enough work for such a body as the conference of governors to justify its existence. It is important that the men whose duty it is to see to the enforcement of the law throughout the country,—the law which most intimately concerns the individual citizen,—should consult together and profit by one another's knowledge and experience.

*State
Versus Federal
Authority* The Spring Lake conference considered these general topics: "Strengthening the Power of the Executive," "Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation," "The Inheritance Tax and State Comity," and "State Control of Public Utilities." In many of the States these are already vital issues, while in others they are rapidly coming to the front. Thus far they have not been complicated with questions of federal authority. They are clearly within the domain of the State governments and the federal government has never disputed any State's authority in regard to them. It was only when the conference began to discuss the rights of the State to fix traffic rates that the possibility of conflict between the State and federal governments was disclosed. The conference, with significant unanimity, voiced its protest against a recent decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals which enjoins the

Minnesota Railroad Commission from regulating rates on the ground that such regulation would interfere with interstate commerce. It was voted to take the unprecedented course of sending this protest to the Supreme Court of the United States through a committee consisting of Governors Harmon, of Ohio, Hadley, of Missouri, and Aldrich, of Nebraska. The only effective way in which the views of the conference can be communicated to the Supreme Court will be in the form of an argument, presented like any other brief of counsel, in support of the rights of the State of Minnesota. In the court's decision are involved, of course, the rights of every other State in the Union.

principle which regulates the relations between the Dominion of Canada and the various Canadian provinces. There the powers not expressly reserved to the provinces are vested in the Dominion Government. The trend of recent judicial decisions in this country, it must be admitted, is clearly in the direction of upholding federal authority at the expense of the States, and now the executives of more than a score of our commonwealths have united in a protest against a decision which threatens, in their opinion, to militate most seriously against the power of the State governments to regulate railroad rates within their own boundaries. The States are no longer asserting a theoretical



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GOVERNOR CHESTER H. ALDRICH
OF NEBRASKA

GOVERNOR JUDSON HARMON
OF OHIO (CHAIRMAN)

GOVERNOR HERBERT S. HADLEY
OF MISSOURI

THE GOVERNORS' COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO ACT ON BEHALF OF THE STATES BEFORE THE
SUPREME COURT IN THE MINNESOTA RATE CASES

*The States
and the
Nation*

This unexpected action of the conference directed the country's attention to the changed attitude of the federal courts toward the relations of the States to the federal government. Formerly the courts were extremely jealous of federal encroachment on the prerogatives of the States. It has always been the working theory of our governmental system that all powers not expressly committed to the general government by the Constitution are reserved to the States, and even the federal control of interstate commerce was late in obtaining recognition. This theory is precisely the reverse of that which ex-Senator Beveridge so clearly sets forth in this number as the

right to leave the Union; they are demanding the right to remain in the Union and be left free to engage in certain activities of their own, without federal interference. Some adjustment must be reached which will permit this without a sacrifice of the federal control of interstate commerce.

*President
Taft's
Trip*

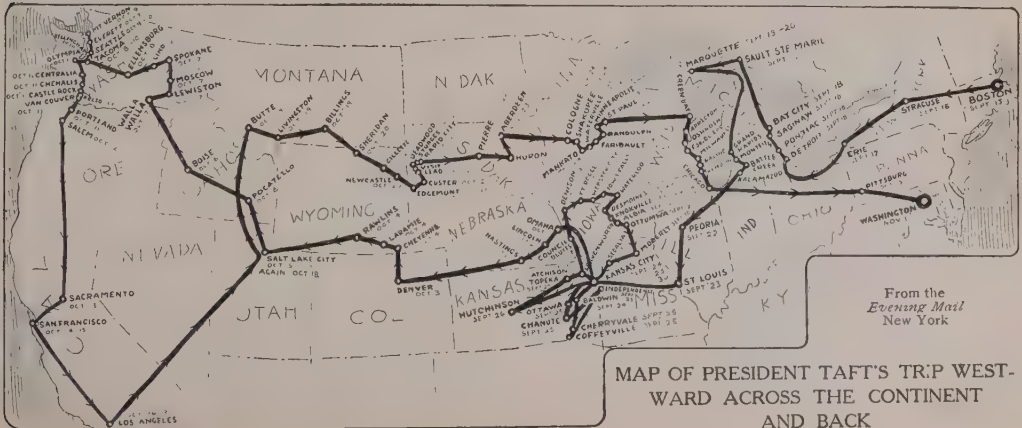
On September 15 President Taft left the "Summer White House" at Beverly, Massachusetts, for a transcontinental tour of the Northern States. On the following day, he spoke at the New York State Fair at Syracuse, and thence journeyed westward and northward, speaking at Erie, Pennsylvania, Detroit and other



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PRESIDENT TAFT SPEAKING AT SYRACUSE, N. Y., AT THE OUTSET OF HIS JOURNEY
ACROSS THE CONTINENT

Michigan cities, St. Louis, and Kansas City. San Francisco he will break ground for the Panama Exposition. After a tour of California, the President will return East through the Northwestern States, closing his 13,000-mile journey with visits to Minnesota and Wisconsin. President Taft's speeches, during





YOUNG PROHIBITION CAMPAIGNERS IN MAINE

will be the concessions of the type made familiar by former expositions. The Government post known as the Presidio adjoins this part of the exposition site, and not many blocks west is Lincoln Park, commanding an unexcelled ocean view, and here will be erected a statue commemorative of the building of the Panama Canal. A strip of 200 acres between Lincoln Park and the Golden Gate Park will accommodate the principal foreign and State exhibits. The museum and art gallery, being permanent features, will be placed in Golden Gate Park. At Telegraph Hill, on the bay front, there will be a monster wireless telegraph tower in connection with a permanent park and observatory. A boulevard and an intermural railway, nine miles in length, will connect these various sites, while the Union Ferry Depot will form the entrance to the city and Market Street will lead to the civic center. The whole country will be interested in the development of this wonderful plan.

Maine's Indecisive Vote

On September 11, the State of Maine voted on the question of repealing the constitutional prohibition of the liquor traffic,—the culmination of an exceedingly active and vigorous campaign on the part of both the friends and the opponents of repeal. Unfortunately, the result was so close that it is regarded by both

parties as indecisive. As was pointed out in these pages last month, a plurality vote, even if it is acknowledged to be in favor of repeal, cannot of itself establish a license system or make any other change in Maine's method of dealing with the liquor traffic. The legislature must first repeal the prohibitory laws now in force and enact new ones before liquor selling can be licensed in Maine. In view of the fact that many of the rural towns and villages undoubtedly favor prohibition, notwithstanding the pro-liquor attitude of the cities, it would seem that a local-option policy is desirable from every point of view.

State and City Elections

There is a State campaign under way in Maryland, which this year chooses a governor and legislature.

State Senator Arthur P. Gorman has been named for the governorship by the Democrats, and Phillips Lee Goldsborough by the Republicans. In the Senatorial primaries held in Virginia early in the month, United States Senator Thomas S. Martin was successful in securing the nomination for the full term, and Senator Claude A. Swanson for the unexpired term of the late Senator Daniel. In the city of Philadelphia there is to be a mayoralty election this fall, and keen interest was developed last month in the choice of party candidates to be determined in open



William S. Vare George H. Earle, Jr.
 REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES FOR THE REPUBLICAN
 MAYORALTY NOMINATION IN PHILADELPHIA

primaries on the last day of the month. Recorder William S. Vare was a leading candidate for the Republican nomination, but his candidacy was vigorously opposed by George H. Earle, Jr., who had the support of United States Senator Penrose. Meanwhile the nomination of the Keystone, or reform, party was sought by Rudolph Blankenburg and Clarence Gibboney. Other important municipal elections of this autumn will be those of Cleveland and San Francisco. Cleveland, which now ranks as the sixth city in the United States, is to choose a new mayor, and the nominees of the Republican and Democratic parties, respectively, have already been selected by the primaries. Director of Public Safety Frank G. Hogen will head the Republican ticket, while the Democrats have united on City Solicitor Newton D. Baker, who was a member of Mayor Tom Johnson's administration and has been four times elected to his present office. In San Francisco, James Rolph, Jr., has begun a spirited campaign for the mayoralty against the present incumbent of the office, P. H. McCarthy. The State of California, by the way, will vote at a special election on October 10 on an equal suffrage amendment to the constitution.

*New York's
 New
 Charter* The New York
 Legislature re-
 sumed its sessions
 last month, after a long
 summer recess. The chief

business that came before it after the re-assembling was to receive the report of the joint cities committees of the two houses on the proposed New York City charter. Some of the objections to the original draft of that document were noted in these pages last month. The legislative committees, after a series of public hearings, announced important changes, especially in the sections relating to the education department. Strenuous objection having been made to the provision for a small, paid Board of Education, the committees revised that provision so as to fix the number of members of the board at fifteen, only one of whom, the president, is to be salaried. Furthermore, the powers of the City Superintendent are enlarged, and he is to have a seat on the board with the power to issue all teachers' licenses. The educational sections of the new charter have aroused more interest, perhaps, than any of the minor political provisions. These latter include the seating of the borough presidents in the Board of Aldermen, the Governor's power of removal as applied to the mayor, comptroller, and borough president, and other elective municipal officers; the membership of the comptroller in the budget committee of the Board of Estimate; the opening of public records in every department, except those of police and law, to public inspection, and so forth. Several of the provisions of the old charter which had been abrogated or materially modified in the first draft were later restored in their original form. The central figure in the whole charter discussion has been Mayor Gaynor



Copyright by Frank Moore Frank G. Hogen Newton D. Baker
 CANDIDATES FOR THE MAYORALTY IN CLEVELAND

himself, who has given to the perfection and completion of the new charter much of his time for several months.

*Dr.
Wiley
Vindicated*

No public official ever received a more complete vindication than was accorded by President Taft to Dr. Harvey W. Wiley in a letter to Secretary Wilson made public on September 15. Dr. Wiley is chief of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Department of Agriculture and has had more to do with the enforcement of the Pure Food law than any other representative of the Government. Several months ago he was charged by the personnel board of the department with a violation of law in the employment of an expert assistant in his bureau. The findings of the board were submitted to the Attorney-General and approved by him, but President Taft, after a thorough review of all the evidence in the case, was convinced that the findings had been based on incomplete data and that Dr. Wiley had not even been guilty of a technical irregularity in the conduct of his office. The President expresses his sympathy with Dr. Wiley's earnest efforts to enforce so important a statute as the Pure Food law. The discussion of this incident in the press has made it clear that the country heartily approves of Dr. Wiley's official course.

*Cultivating
a Popular
Art Instinct*

Slowly, but none the less surely, the general American public is acquiring a sort of art instinct that is not only bound to have immense cultural value but certain to result in increased material advantage. There is the



MAYOR GAYNOR, OF NEW YORK, AS HE APPEARED
LAST MONTH



AS GOOD AS A DOZEN SPEECHES
From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago)

never-ending process of education going on through the press by its reports of art development all over the world. The public learns a good deal about painting when something sensational happens to a great masterpiece. Witness the theft of da Vinci's painting, "Monna Lisa," from the Louvre last month, —which we discuss on another page. A very significant development of the past year is the work of the Detroit Art Museum. For seventeen years, Director A. H. Griffith, of that institution, has been giving popular Sunday afternoon talks on art topics, to intensely interested audiences. His addresses have often taken a practical turn, in dealing with the subject of home decoration, the selection of pictures, rugs, wall paper, furniture, and bric-à-brac, seeking to discourage

the buying of cheap and tawdry things. The tribute to the efficacy of these talks is found in the openly expressed hostility of the dealers in cheap things, who complain that Director Griffith has injured their business. Much has been done to elevate the musical taste of the New York public by the popular concerts held under municipal direction. Mr. Arthur Farwell, the director of this music, describes elsewhere in this number the plan and scope of the work and tells graphically some of the difficulties encountered. A good deal of encouragement may be extracted from the campaign recently inaugurated by the Committee on Good Roads of the Automobile Club of America for the destruction of unlawful signs along the highways—unlawful, according to an act of the last New York Legislature, unless the consent of the owner of the property has been obtained—and for requesting owners to refuse to consent to the disfigurement of their premises.

*The
Boy
Scouts*

In this number (page 429) appears an article by Mr. Dan Beard on the Boy Scouts of America. This society already has the names of 300,000 American boys upon its rolls, and is growing so rapidly, from day to day, that the central headquarters in New York City has

difficulty in tabulating its membership. The society seems to have quickly found a place for itself in the field of associated work for boys, and while it conflicts in no way with the Young Men's Christian Association and similar organizations, it supplements the activities of all of them, and has allurements for both city- and country-bred boys which no other society offers. Any father of boys who reads Mr. Beard's article will be impressed, we are sure, with the practical value of the training that the boy scout receives, and can hardly fail to share the enthusiasm of Mr. Beard and his colleagues on the official staff of the organization. General Baden-Powell has done much to energize and popularize the Boy Scout movement in England.

*A New
Kind of
Revival*

The newspapers have recently begun to give attention to an evangelistic movement of unusual proportions and distinctive methods. It is said that 8000 men are, at the present time, serving on committees throughout the United States in connection with this enterprise. During the coming eight months eighty American cities will be visited by a group of experienced evangelists, and many of the smaller cities and towns will be reached by the same propaganda through auxiliary commit-



A SUNDAY ADDRESS TO A GROUP OF BOY SCOUTS BY A STATE COMMISSIONER



"BOY SCOUT" LEADERS OF THE WORLD

(Ernest Thompson Seton, Chief Scout of the Boy Scouts of America; General Baden-Powell, father of the organization in Great Britain; and Dan Beard, National Scout Commissioner for America)

tees and speakers. This systematized touring of the country is, however, not the vital feature of what is called "The Men and Religion Forward Movement," although it will doubtless surpass all earlier attempts of a similar nature. The really distinctive element in this organized effort is the scientific study and classification of all data bearing on the religious condition of the nation. This application of the card-index system to religious conditions on so vast a scale is something quite new in the world's history. The same methods have been found to succeed in politics, in business, and in many forms of industry, and it is only reasonable to expect that they will be attended with some degree of success in the field of religious evangelization. As an instance of the thoroughness with which this survey will be made, it is stated

that blanks have been prepared covering over a thousand points in each city's life. Local committees in the various cities have this investigation in charge, and in some cases experts have been engaged who will give their entire time to the study. Taking this investigation as a basis, charts will be made for each city upon which will be graphically displayed the most important facts discovered. An effort will be made to obtain exact knowledge concerning the membership and activities of all Protestant churches. Local committees on "social service" will give the facts with reference to the area of the cities, the character of their early settlers and industries, and their influence upon the present-day life. Each city will be studied as a whole, showing its industries, its predominating nationalities, the density of its population,



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MISS MATILDA MOISANT

(One of America's licensed women flyers contesting at the Nassau Boulevard meet)

vital facts with reference to its municipal administration, various organizations affecting its social, political, industrial, and religious life, its community problems, such as saloons, dance-halls, crimes and arrests, housing and health, and, finally, the purposes, efficiency, and needs of its public and private agencies for social service.

Coöperative
Effort

It is not too much to say that so comprehensive a study of actual conditions was never before undertaken in this country by any religious organization. A campaign of this kind could not hope for any measure of success without the coöperation of existing societies and institutions working in the same field. The present undertaking has the active backing of all the leading religious organizations in the country, including the Young Men's Christian Association, the International Sunday School Association, various denominational brotherhoods, and the great national mission boards. The entire movement is headed by what is known as the Committee of Ninety-Seven, made up of representative men selected from every part of the United States and Canada, while every city in which meetings are to be held has its Committee of One Hundred, already thoroughly organized and prepared to do systematic work. The chairman of the Committee of Ninety-Seven is James G.

Cannon, President of the Fourth National Bank, of New York. It is stated that provision has been made for the financing of the work by means of subscriptions from men of wealth throughout the country.

Notable
Agricultural
Conference

The fact that 63 per cent. of the remaining unoccupied arable acreage of the earth, if cultivated at all, must be tilled by dry-farming methods, shows the vast importance of this subject. Years of experimentation and testing of various systems have demonstrated that drouth can be largely overcome where proper precautions are taken. American agriculturists have taken a leading part in this movement. The Sixth International Dry-Farming Congress, meeting in Colorado Springs October 16-20, will bring together farmers, scientists, national and State agricultural secretaries and experts, as well as landowners, and others interested in agricultural development, from various parts of the world.

American
Aviation
Meets

The recent great flying-meets, while not financially successful, have furnished considerable aerial entertainment for many thousands of spectators. In August, Chicago furnished its quota of aerial thrills, with an unfortunate element of disaster, and last month Boston followed with a series of successful flights at the Squantum Aviation Field. The feature of this Boston meet was the Tri-State race of 160 miles through New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. This was won by E. L. Ovington, in the monoplane class, and by Lieutenant T. D. Milling, U. S. A., in the biplane class. Another flying meet, enlisting the services of a large company of aviators of international fame, was arranged to take place under the auspices of the Aero Club of New York at the Nassau Boulevard, Long Island, September 23-October 1. This aerial tournament had the distinction of having special races and prizes for women. Among those entered for these events were Miss Matilda Moisant (sister of the late brilliant flyer, John B. Moisant), Miss Harriet Quimby, and Miss Blanche Scott, all qualified American aviators, and Mlle. Hélène Dutrieu, one of France's licensed women pilots, who came over especially to enter these contests.

Long
Cross-Country
Flights

The long cross-country flight, however, is now holding the bulk of public attention in America. Europe has had its 1000-mile circuit flights, but nothing of the sort had been achieved here

until Harry N. Atwood, after flying from Boston to Washington, undertook and successfully completed an aerial trip from St. Louis to New York, the distance covered being 1265 miles. Atwood was a little over eleven days on the way—from August 14 to 25—his actual flying time being 29 hours and 35 minutes. The trip, which was made in twenty flights and with but one forced descent, consumed almost all of the \$10,000 prize which it won for Atwood, but it was accomplished with safety to the aviator, and stands as the world's record for a long-distance journey by air. Stimulated by Atwood's success, the great overland air journey between San Francisco and New York, for which Mr. William R. Hearst is offering \$50,000, has now been attempted. Last month as many as eight flyers had entered for the performance of this feat, which must be begun before October 10 and completed in thirty days. Up to September 17, three men had ventured on the trip, Robert C. Fowler starting from the Pacific end, and James Ward and C. P. Rodgers from New York. All three met with accidents before they had gone very far from their points of departure, but continued their journeys undiscouraged. The progress of these overland flyers, as noted in the newspapers, has been eagerly watched all over the country. Another interesting long-distance flight now on the program is a 1500-mile trip down the Mississippi River which is being arranged by the principal cities en route.



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

Mlle. HELENE DUTRIEU

(Famous woman aviator of France who took part in the Nassau Boulevard meet)

*Aerial
Triumphs
and
Disasters*

Some remarkable feats in height and distance have recently been made. It seems as if the altitude record is not destined to remain long at any one point. Not many weeks ago Captain Felix, the French aviator, rose to a height of 10,826 feet. Then Beachey, at the Chicago meet in the latter part of August, rising until his gasoline was exhausted, touched 11,640 feet; and, on September 4, Roland Garros placed the altitude mark at 13,943 feet. In a single non-stop flight, Fourny accomplished 447 miles in 11 hours. Vedrines, with two 50-minute stops, made 496 miles in a similar space of time, while Helles, with three stops for fuel, achieved 745 miles in 15 hours. A new record recently added to American aviation laurels is for an endurance flight with a passenger, which was made by William Beatty at Chicago, his time being 3 hours and 42 minutes. Unfortunately, records in disasters were also made last month, a dozen or more men dying as a result of aeroplane accidents. Among the more prominent was Eduard Nieuport, the famous designer of the Nieuport monoplane, the fastest machine in use. France's mortality toll has indeed been heavy in recent weeks, as many as half a dozen of her aviators having met death. England lost Lieutenant R. A. Cammell, who was engaged in the aerial postal service. His machine collapsed in the air and fell. Among American



THE MAIL MAN—1912
(Apropos of recent experiments)
From the Press (New York)



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MR. HAROLD H. HILTON

(Amateur golf champion of Great Britain and the United States)

aviators, Captain John J. Frisbie, one of the Curtiss flyers, met his death in Kansas. It appears that Frisbie, goaded by the taunts of the crowd, attempted a flight in a damaged machine and forfeited his life.

*Postmen and
Scouts
of the Air*

Interesting experiments in aerial postal service have been carried on in both France and Great Britain. Vedrines, noted winner of the Paris to Madrid race, made some successful postal trips by air from Paris to Trouville, making better time than the railroad. The "First United Kingdom Aerial Post" was inaugurated in London last month, and the carrying of mail by flying machine was begun between the Hendon aviation grounds and Windsor Castle. With the approval and coöperation of Postmaster-General Hitchcock, an American experiment along this line was arranged for in connection with the international meet at Nassau Boulevard last month, a sub-station being installed on the aviation grounds. For war purposes, as well as those of peace, the aeroplane continues to make progress. In the autumn maneuvers of both the French and German armies the aeroplanes gave an excellent account of themselves, winning the highest praises of the officers in charge. In the French maneuvers as many as forty machines were used. France, in fact, is giving special attention to the military development of the aeroplane, both the government and the people showing intense interest in

this branch of aviation. An instance of this is the \$20,000 prize offered by M. Michelin to stimulate the improvement of the aeroplane for practical use in war. Another notable contribution to the progress of aerial science is the Aero Technical Institute recently opened at Paris. This was founded by M. Henry Deutsch, another well-known French patron of the art. In this institution, equipped with the necessary appliances and machinery, experts will busy themselves with such subjects as the motor, the propellor, the question of automatic stability, and other vital phases of aviation, in the hope that solutions may ultimately be found for some of those vexing problems that still stand in the way of man's complete conquest of the air.

*International
Sports*

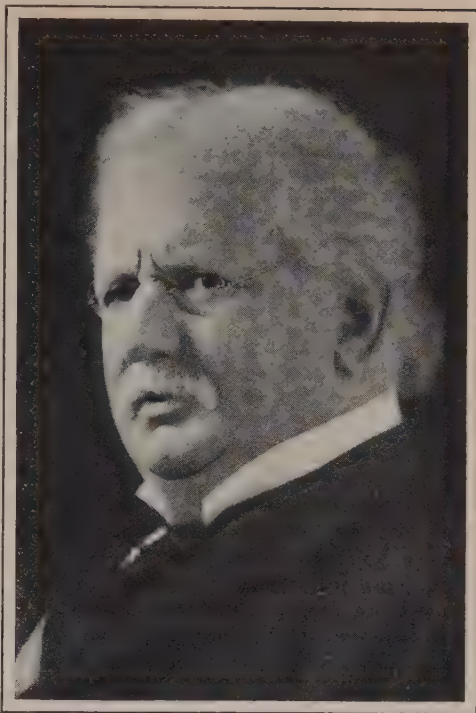
A number of sporting events of international interest, participated in by representatives of Great Britain and America, took place in this country last month. Honors fell to both countries. The tennis matches in the preliminary tie for the Davis Cup were successfully held on the courts of the West Side Tennis Club in New York. The American team won four of the five points (taking the four singles matches and losing the doubles match to the Britons), securing the right to challenge the Australian holders for the cup. In the international motor-boat races for the Harmsworth trophy, held at Huntington, Long Island, the American boat *Dixie IV* beat her English competitors, thus retaining the much-coveted trophy in this country. The *Dixie* covered the 30-mile course in 51 minutes, 15 seconds, averaging 40.38 statute miles an hour. A contest of interest to all golfers both in this country and abroad was that in which Harold H. Hilton, England's amateur golf champion, won the American title after an extra-hole match with Frederick Herreshoff in the final round of the national championship tournament at the Apawamis Club on September 16. Another sporting event in which England triumphed was an international soccer game between the Corinthians of England and the New Yorkers, the English team winning by a score of 4 to 2. Those outside automobile circles, as well as the many thousands of car owners and drivers, will be interested in the new speed record made by "Bob" Burman in a Blitzen-Benz car at Brighton Beach, New York. Burman covered a two-mile course on a circular track in 1 minute, 37.89 seconds,—at the rate of 74 miles an hour.

Western
Union
Report

More than casual interest attaches to the figures contained in the Western Union Telegraph Company's preliminary estimated statement for the quarter ended September 30th, showing net revenues of \$2,220,200, a balance available for dividends of \$1,786,138, and a surplus of \$1,038,251. They reveal the most prosperous financial condition that the company has enjoyed in any period of like duration in nearly a decade. To find revenues anywhere near approaching those just reported, it is necessary to go back as far as 1905, in which year they were \$2,007,593 for the corresponding quarter. But the most significant thing about them is that they are interpreted as the reflection of President Vail's progressive and statesmanlike policies, which have done so much in bringing the physical property of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, of which he is also executive head, to a high state of efficiency for public service, and in destroying whatever hostility may have existed toward that great combination. The Western Union began to have the benefits of these policies late in 1909 when the Telephone Company purchased a minority of the stock and secured voting rights on enough additional shares to give it a dominant voice in the Telegraph Company's affairs. One of President Vail's early discoveries as a result of his study of Western Union's business was that the company's lines were being utilized to their capacity only a comparatively short time each day. He set about the task of devising some means whereby the company's existing facilities could be brought into greater public use without adding materially to expenses. The result was the establishment at considerably reduced rates of the "night letter," and the day "lettergram" services, which have sprung into wide popular favor in both a commercial and a social way. It is gratifying that this liberal and progressive policy should have so quick a financial reward.

Improving the
Transatlantic
Cable Service

Another indication of the progressiveness of Western Union's new management is found in the arrangements which have just been completed for important changes in the company's transatlantic cable service. These contemplate the lease of the Anglo-American Telegraph Company and the Direct United States Cable Company, of England, bringing eight cables under direct Western Union control and making it possible to put into effect a number of economies and improvements which should



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PRESIDENT THEODORE N. VAIL OF THE WESTERN UNION TELEGRAPH COMPANY AND THE AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY

prove of much public benefit. In announcing the details of these arrangements, President Vail stated that to continue to confine the cables as at present to the "flash" or instantaneous service, would be to utilize only about 25 per cent. of existing capacity. Owing to the difference in time between New York and London, there are only a few business hours of the day common to both cities, and during those hours at least 75 per cent. of the business is done. In order to fill in this gap in much the same way as the gap in the business of the land lines was filled in, Western Union now proposes to introduce two new features in the shape of the "daily cable letter" and "week-end cable letter" in addition to a deferred rate service. These "letters"—for the introduction of each the consent of the British Post-Office Department has been granted—will be transmitted at a low rate and will enable the public to save the six to eight days now taken by the regular mail steamships. President Vail points out significantly that his company is not looking toward a cable monopoly. Indeed, he says, no such monopoly is possible—that the three systems, the Western Union, the French, and the Mackay, will continue to exist.

*Progress in
Reorganizing
the Trusts*

Although progress is reported in the work of preparing the American Tobacco Company for dissolution, in accordance with the Supreme Court's decree, it is likely to be some time yet before the details of the reorganization plan are known. Representatives of the company have had several conferences with Attorney-General Wickersham and the Circuit Court judges, whose approval will be necessary before any plan can be put into effect, but there are said to be several important points on which the conferees have failed to agree, one of them being a suggestion that the Government shall continue to supervise the reorganized companies. It is possible that it will become necessary for the trust to ask for an extension of the time allotted for it to effect its dissolution and that the final steps will not be taken until well after the first of next year. The company's problem thus appears to be proving quite as difficult of satisfactory solution as this magazine predicted it would. It contrasts sharply with that of the Standard Oil Company which had only to announce to its stockholders of record September 1st that the shares of the thirty-three subsidiary corporations, which came within the purview of the Supreme Court's decision, would be distributed to them pro rata on or about December 1. One of the big tasks of the American Tobacco Company is to find some equitable and satisfactory method of treating its debenture bondholders, while at the same time conserving the interests of the stockholders. Protective committees were formed ostensibly to represent the holders of three classes of the company's securities—the two bond issues and the preferred stock—but it is not clear just what these committees hope to accomplish. Moreover, their independence has been called into question since it was announced that the Tobacco Company itself had agreed to assume whatever expenses might be incurred by them. Notwithstanding certain large discretionary powers with which they are clothed they have been successful in getting control of large amounts of the securities. But it is believed the holders are likely to find that their hope lies with the Circuit Court judges after all.

*The
Stock
Market*

Every such extended period of general liquidation as the one through which the securities markets both here and abroad have just been passing, justifies some inquiry into the causes. Little reference need be made in this connection to such things as "manipulation," "bear

raids," and so on, about which so much is always heard on like occasions. It has been demonstrated often enough that while speculators of large resources can artificially advance or depress the prices of single stocks or of certain groups of stocks to their advantage, in practice they are powerless nowadays to control the whole market for any length of time. What bona fide investors are most interested in is the extent to which falling or rising prices are the reflection of what we sometimes refer to as "world economics." The sympathetic relationship existing between the big markets of New York, London, Paris, Berlin, and Amsterdam is pretty well understood. Doubtless it will have occurred, then, to a good many people to attribute at least a part of the unsettlement in the New York market to the disturbance in foreign financial centers incident to the dispute between France and Germany over Morocco. The almost complete demoralization of the Berlin market about the middle of September seemed, in fact, to offer sufficient grounds for an explanation of that kind.

*Germany's
Financial
Troubles*

But the more thoughtful observers point out that the Morocco incident was only superficially the cause of Berlin's excitement—that if it had not served to reveal in Germany a condition of inflation similar to that which prevailed in this country following the 1907-8 crisis, something else would have. In other words, the underlying cause of the liquidation abroad is held to be economic and not political. It has been necessary for the Germans to reduce their foreign commitments in order that they might be able to carry their own industrial stocks through the period of readjustment. They have sold American securities, "not from any doubt of their quality," as the *Wall Street Journal* says, "but for the simple reason that there is a market for them." Meanwhile, in this country, besides the general disappointment over the crop outlook, business in practically all lines has failed to show much, if any, rebound from the usual midsummer inactivity; the railroads have continued to report higher expenses and declining earnings; and indeed one or two of the large systems have been threatened with labor difficulties of more or less serious nature. Such conditions cast a shadow upon the future. And it is probably to the stock market's habit of discounting things months in advance that we must look for further explanation of prevailing prices which are from twenty to thirty points below the "high" of the year.



MR. BERNARD N. BAKER, OF BALTIMORE
(President of the new Atlantic and Pacific
Transport Company)

*American Ships
Planned for
the Panama
Canal*

The possibilities of a real beginning in the rehabilitation of this country's merchant marine are suggested by the plans of the Atlantic and Pacific Transport Company, which was organized last month with \$15,000,000 authorized capital for the purpose of operating a fleet of American-built ships from ocean to ocean through the Panama Canal. These plans will be entirely contingent upon the new company's success in bidding for the ocean mail contracts now being advertised by the Postmaster-General and for which proposals will be received up to November 25, next. But once it does become a "going concern" the men at the head of it may be expected to give a good account of themselves, for they are all veterans in the business of ocean transportation. They are, Bernard N. Baker (president), James S. Whitely, C. G. Heim, and T. B. Harrison, of Baltimore, and Adrian H. Boole, of Washington. The first four were the original promoters of and officers in the Atlantic Transport Company prior to that company's absorption by the big "Morgan" steamship combine,—the International Mercantile Marine,—while Mr. Boole was formerly a partner in the American Agency of the Wilson Steamship Lines of

Hull, England. The Government offers ten-year contracts for weekly mail service between New York and Colon, New Orleans and Colon, San Francisco and Panama, and fortnightly service between Seattle and Panama to be inaugurated on the completion of the Canal in 1913. With this as a nucleus, the new steamship line would extend its operations to join Pacific and Atlantic seaports through the Canal and eventually include in its schedule the ports of Portland, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, Jacksonville, Key West, Mobile, and Galveston. "In short," to use the words of the promoters themselves, "it is the purpose of this line to develop the entire domestic commerce of the country via the Panama Canal as fully as may be done by modern water transportation." It is proposed that the company shall begin business with a fleet of no fewer than fifteen steamers of the most modern construction. With such a fleet it is expected that the new concern would be able to contend successfully for a considerable share of the enormous coast to coast traffic now being carried entirely by the railroads.

*Trade with
Central and
South American
Countries*

But an almost equally important factor in this company's business will be the incidental trade with Central and South American countries. This the Atlantic and Pacific Transport line proposes to develop by means of a system of seagoing barges to operate along the coasts and connect with the mail steamers from the United States. These barges are to be of light draft, in order that they may be able to penetrate the shoal bays, roadsteads and rivers and thus build up a large traffic to be transferred to the big ships. At the Canal entrances, Colon and Panama, large piers and warehouses for the handling of such traffic are already under construction by the Isthmian Canal Commission on behalf of the Government. President Baker states that within easy water communication of these points there are 14,000,000 people representing \$135,000,000 commerce. And of this amount less than \$9,000,000 was brought from and less than \$18,000,000 shipped to the United States last year. In other words, these 14,000,000 people were buying annually but 64 cents per capita from the United States while spending \$3.58 per capita for similar commodities in more remote countries. It is the hope of Mr. Baker and his associates not only that a larger share of this commerce may be diverted to this country, but that it may be substantially increased in volume.

Making
Sure of
Competition

Reference was made last month in these pages, in commenting on the long-and-short-haul decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission and its effect upon rates, to the problem confronting the railroads in having to meet increased water competition following the opening of the Panama Canal. As a matter of fact the Government itself seems to have taken all of the necessary steps to make actual competition of that kind certain. At least the steamship company that gets the ocean mail contracts is sure to be operated independently of the railroads. The Postmaster-General has said explicitly that: (1)—No mail contract will be awarded to any bidder who shall be engaged in any competitive transportation by rail. (2)—Every person serving as a director of the company making a successful bid must make oath that he is not a railroad representative or is acting in the interests of any railroad corporation. (3)—The power of any director or shareholder of such company shall cease when it has been determined that he represents a competitive railway interest. In the certificate of incorporation of the Atlantic and Pacific Transport Company provisions are made to meet these requirements of the Government.

Revised
Cotton-Crop
Estimates

Instead of a "bumper" cotton crop, approximating 15,000,000 bales, which the country had been led to expect from the early season returns, the Government's report covering the condition on the 25th of August indicated a crop of only about 12,250,000 bales. The Government's figures showed a deterioration of nearly 16 points since July 25th, bringing the condition slightly below the ten-year average. Many authorities in the trade, however, while admitting that there was a good deal of damage done during that period, declare it to be hardly credible that it was so great as represented by the Agricultural Department's experts. The trade estimates have placed the season's yield at a minimum of 13,000,000 bales and a maximum of 14,000,000 bales. Recent advices indicate, moreover, that since August 25th weather conditions in the cotton-growing States have been such as to benefit the crop materially. Everything now appears to depend upon the date of frost. If that comes at the average time or later, there is still reason to hope for a record yield. Meanwhile, not a little interest has centered on the statistics relating to the crop marketed during the twelve months ended August 31. The *Commercial and Financial*

Chronicle estimates this at 12,132,000 bales. Of that amount American spinners took 4,584,000 bales and 7,759,000 were exported—about one-half—to Great Britain. The crop sold for more money than any other crop grown in this country, bringing \$1,030,000,000 or a quarter of a billion more than the crop of 1908-9 which was 1,700,000 bales larger.

The
Year's Yield
of Grain

Likewise on the basis of the Government's September grain report some revision of previously estimated yields is necessary, but mostly on the favorable side. The expectation that the timely rains of August would better the prospects is entirely confirmed. The forecast of the yield of corn, for example, was raised more than 100,000,000 bushels over the one made early in August. A total crop of 2,736,000,000 bushels is now indicated—about 390,000,000 bushels less than in 1910. Oats promise 25,000,000 bushels more than in August, but 284,000,000 bushels less than last year. Of the other crops, all except spring wheat gained. Authorities generally agree that good prices will prevail.

Canada
Defeats
Reciprocity

The campaign which led up to Sir Wilfrid Laurier's defeat in the Canadian elections last month was one of the most hotly contested and sensational in the history of the Dominion. The issue overshadowing all others was that of reciprocity with the United States. The voters of the Dominion evidently took the Conservative party's war cry seriously and believed that reciprocity would be only a preliminary step toward absorption by the United States. The vote on September 21 was a complete victory for the Opposition to Sir Wilfrid Laurier's policy and a decisive condemnation of reciprocity. On the face of the returns (with one constituency not voting) the next Parliament will show the following party divisions: British Columbia, 5 Conservatives, 2 Liberals; Alberta, 2 Conservatives, 5 Liberals; Saskatchewan, 3 Conservatives, 7 Liberals; Manitoba, 7 Conservatives, 3 Liberals; Ontario, 74 Conservatives, 12 Liberals; Quebec, 24 Conservatives (including 2 Nationalists), 41 Liberals; New Brunswick, 6 Conservatives, 7 Liberals; Nova Scotia, 9 Conservatives, 9 Liberals; Prince Edward Island, 2 Conservatives, 2 Liberals. Total, Conservatives, 132; Liberals, 88. Of the reciprocity issue the Premier said, in an address early in the campaign:

We believe it means much to our young and growing Dominion. We believe that in two coun-

tries like Canada and the United States, situated as they are alongside each other, reciprocity of trade in natural products will produce a large measure of benefit to the people. I do not hesitate to say that the greater benefit will be derived by Canada, as the weaker profit more than the stronger. This should never be a party question. To say that it involves a weakening of our ties with the motherland is absurd, insincere and false.

*Position
of the
Conservatives*

The opposition, under the leadership of Mr. Robert L. Borden, made much of the annexation bogey and the cry of American dollars. Reciprocity with the United States, said Mr. Borden, in a document issued on the eve of the campaign, must be rejected, because it "segregates and separates" the provinces, tempting those of the prairie region (Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta) to forget their vital connection with the East and to look to American markets for their agricultural products and for their supplies of manufactured goods. It would make Canada "a commercial appanage of the United States, and in adopting it the Dominion would virtually surrender the control of her destinies."

*Some
Campaign
Amenities*

There was much bitterness in the press. President Taft, who is regarded by most Canadians as the father of the reciprocity measure, Mr. James J. Hill, whose railroads compete at many points with Canadian systems and would be supposed to benefit by a lowering of the tariff between the two countries, and Mr. W. R. Hearst, whose various newspapers, with their editions in Canada, have been "booming" reciprocity, and at the same time chronicling the indiscreet utterances regarding annexation, made at different times by various American public men, were personalities scarcely less prominent in the campaign than the Premier and the Opposition leader themselves. The opponents of reciprocity tried to make that policy appear as disloyalty to Britain. The Liberal press, however, had



From the Montreal Daily Star.

SIR WILFRID LAURIER IN THE HEAT OF THE CANADIAN CAMPAIGN

been bidding Mr. Borden "go to Halifax and tell his own constituents there that free trade in fish is treason." The Opposition leader did not favor the maritime provinces with his presence as much as the Premier, who, having finished the campaign in his own home province of Quebec, went into the enemy's country and told the Blue Noses and the New Brunswickers what reciprocity means. He promised them, moreover, that if he were defeated this time he would quit public life. Appeals to anti-American sentiment by the Conservatives during the campaign were very bitter, and in editorial and cartoon Uncle Sam and "tricky Taft" were represented as sly, vulgar, designing villains, planning Canada's destruction and gloating over

"It is Not What We (the United States) Gain, so Much as It Is What We PREVENT by This Reciprocity Pact That is Important."—James J. Hill, American Railroad Magnate.
Let the Canadian Elector Ask Himself What it is That Reciprocity is Intended to PREVENT.

NO WAR UNLESS IT IS FORCED UPON GERMANY, REPORT

British Cabinet Minister Alleged to Have Made This Declaration to Correspondent.

TENSION IS SERIOUS IN PARIS AT PRESENT

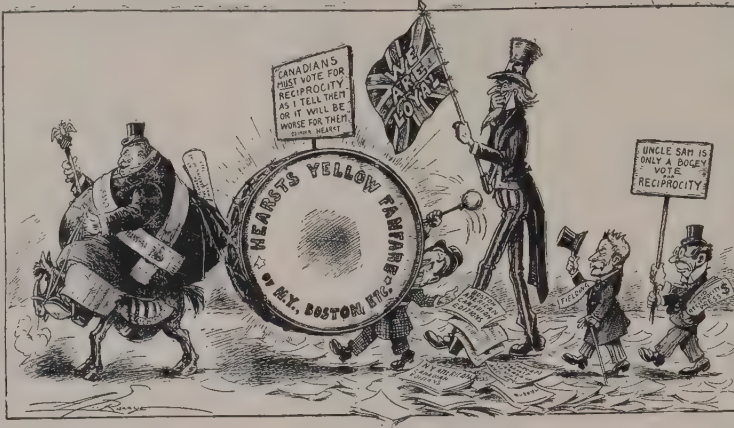
England Strengthening Mediterranean Defences—German Demands Grasping.

Special to The Montreal Star, Paris, Sept. 11.—According to one version, Germany demands a Congo outlet by way of the Sange river, the "most favored nation" treatment in Morocco, 40 instead of 50 per cent. of all Moroccan public contracts, as specified by the Algerian treaty, and that France become responsible for the Moroccan Government. It is a foregone conclusion that France will refuse these demands.

FRENCH AMBASSADOR HURRIES FROM LONDON.

Arrived in The Dominion City, Paris, September 11.—M. Blandin, the French ambassador at London, the French representative at the Paris conference, is expected to leave for London tomorrow.

GRAND MONSTER PARADE OF THE CANADIAN RECIPROCITY PARTY BEFORE ELECTION DAY



AN ANTI-LAURIER NEWSPAPER POSTER USED IN THE CAMPAIGN

INSANITY DEFENCE IN CASE OF HAYES WHO SHOT GIRL

Defence Will Attempt to Show That Man Was Not in His Right Mind at the Time.

MISS WARNER NOW OUT OF EMINENT DANGER

Detective, Who Arrested Hayes, Tells of Alleged Statements. He Made.

In the trial of a man charged with the murder of a girl, the defence will attempt to show that the man was not in his right mind at the time. The man, who is named Hayes, is charged with the murder of a girl named Miss Warner. The defence will attempt to show that Hayes was not in his right mind at the time of the murder. The defence will also attempt to show that Hayes was not in his right mind at the time of the murder. The defence will also attempt to show that Hayes was not in his right mind at the time of the murder.

it. To add to the general entertainment, no less a chauvinistic British Imperialist than Rudyard Kipling himself thought it necessary to send a letter to a Montreal newspaper, warning the Dominion that only at their peril can 9,000,000 Canadians maintain reciprocal

trade arrangements with 90,000,000 Americans. The Imperialist poet-author can see nothing in reciprocity for Canada "except a little ready money, which she does not need, and a very long repentance." In an amusing reply, Premier Arthur Sifton, of Alberta, inquired whether Mr. Kipling would have a bill of attainder drawn up against the Grand Trunk Railroad because it runs lines into the United States.



HE'S NO FOOL. A LIBERAL CARTOON

THE WORKINGMAN: "Look here, Mr. Borden, I am willing to listen to reason, but you must know I'm not a child to be scared away from a chance to get cheaper food by that sort of a bogey."

From the *Herald* (Montreal)

Strength of the Parties

The Dominion Parliament, it will be remembered, was dissolved on May 19, nominations were made on September 15, and the pollings took place on September 21. When Parliament was dissolved, the Liberal members of the House numbered 130 and the Conservatives 88. The three remaining seats out of a total of 221 were held by one Laborite, one Nationalist, and one Independent, who generally voted with the Liberals, who, therefore, had a majority of 42 over the combined opposition. The representation was distributed as follows: British Columbia, 7; Yukon, 1; Saskatchewan, 10; Alberta, 7; Manitoba, 10; Ontario, 86; Quebec, 65; New Brunswick, 13; Nova Scotia, 18; Prince Edward Island, 4; Total, 221. The general election was not a mere referendum on reciprocity. The conservatives charged the party in power with "graft" and broken promises, and with deferring electoral reapportionment. Mr. Henri Bourassa, the brilliant Nationalist of Quebec,

made a vigorous campaign on the navy issue, which he calls ultra-imperialism, and his efforts probably resulted in decreasing the Liberal vote.

*Preparing for
the Election
in Mexico*

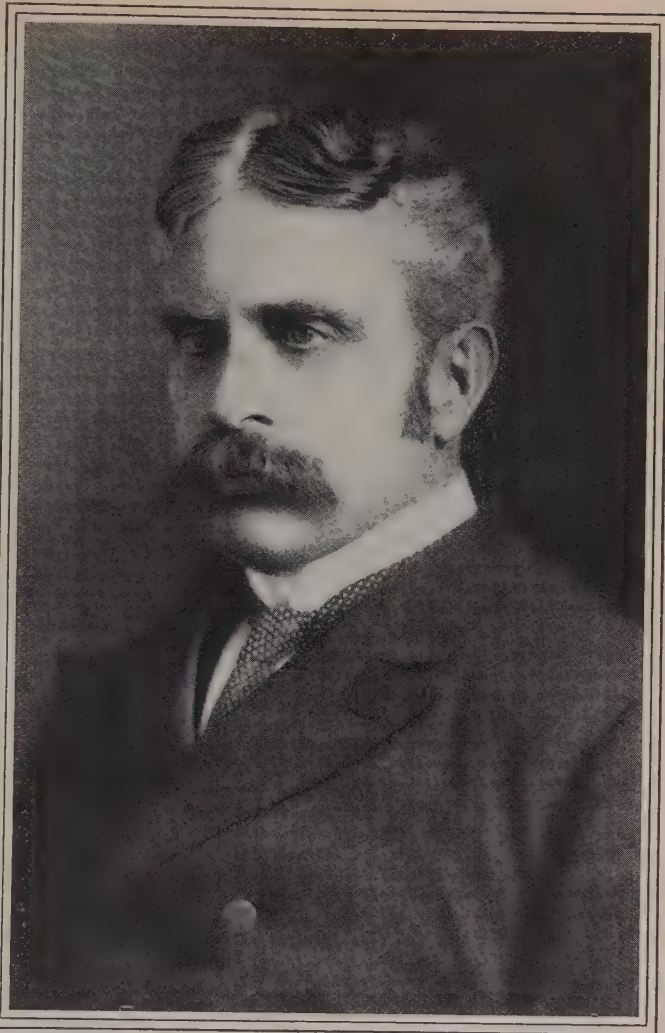
It was rumored, during early September, that the

United States Government, speaking for several European powers as well as for itself, had urged the Mexican Government to postpone the presidential elections, set for the first day of the present month. This, it was further alleged, was with the object of bringing about a more settled state of affairs in the country, and ultimately the choice of Provisional President de la Barra as the nation's head. Nothing, of course, could have been further from the intention of our State Department than to interfere in Mexico's domestic affairs. The protection of American citizens, their property, and their rights as individuals, has been the only concern of this government, and no doubt, by this time, the bulk of the Mexican people realize that fact. As yet no official action has been taken with regard to the claims of American citizens against the Mexican Government for damages incurred during the insurrection. A Domestic Commission, similar in purpose to the United States Court of Claims, has already been appointed by Mexico to consider this subject.

*Candidates
and
Platforms*

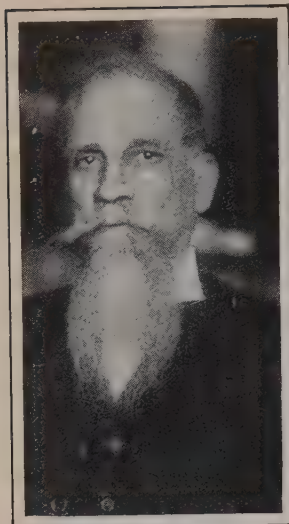
The weeks preceding the election had been marked by considerable disorder at many different points.

This was due, however, as we have already remarked in these pages, more to the painful process of reconstruction now going on, than to any serious dissatisfaction with the new régime which is slowly assuming sway over the entire republic. Mexico is really becoming pacified. Trade and commerce are reviving, and the efficiency of governmental administration has already been greater than ever under President Diaz, in many places. The principal



HON. ROBERT L. BORDEN, THE NEXT PREMIER OF CANADA,
CHIEF OF THE ANTI-RECIPROCITY FORCES

candidates for the presidency, Señor Francisco Madero, Jr., and General Bernardo Reyes, were nominated in conventions, which, though slightly marred by disorder among the delegates, were at least fairly representative of the people's will. The platform of the so-called Progressives, who nominated Madero, called for the fulfillment of all ante-election promises; the enactment of a law against reelection; and the revision of all legislation that concerns the methods of elections. It promised, further, a revision of the tax system; favored the development of public resources; promised to combat all monopolies and special privileges, to reform the judicial and legal systems of the country, to advance education; and generally to improve the con-



GENERAL BERNARDO REYES, A
PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE
IN MEXICO

seemed likely late last month that the date of the election might be postponed beyond the day originally set.

*Portugal's
First Regular
President* The new constitution of Portugal, as drawn up by the first Parliament, went into effect on August

25. Immediately upon its proclamation the entire provisional government, headed by President Theophile Braga, which assumed power at the time of the overthrow of the monarchy just one year ago this month, retired from office. The National Assembly



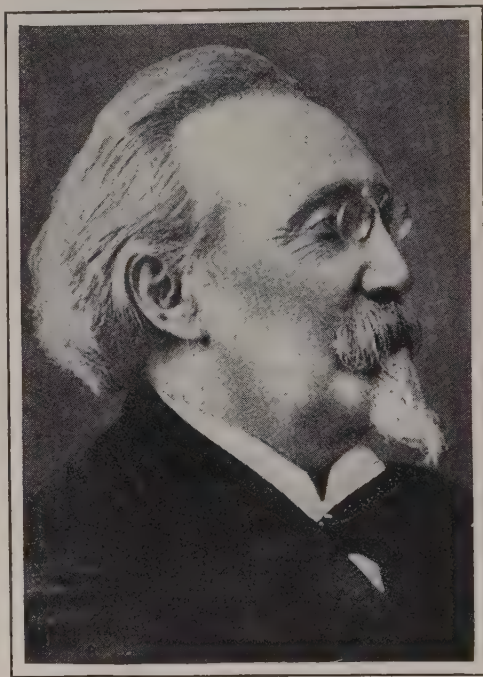
FRANCISCO MADERO, A PRESIDENTIAL
CANDIDATE IN MEXICO

Dr. Arriaga is in his seventieth year. He is a native of the Azores, a Doctor of Laws of the University of Coimbra, and a brilliant journalist and orator. He announces that he has

no program other than "the most earnest of endeavors to unite all parties in the support of the government,"—a task obviously very difficult, if not impossible of accomplishment. The Cabinet has declared that it will pursue a moderate policy, and will endeavor to revise the Church separation law so that none of the ecclesiastical property or revenues will be confiscated. A number of efforts to revive the monarchy, during recent weeks, have been traced to activities of the supporters of ex-King Manoel. The republic, however, appears to be firmly in the saddle.

*End of the
British
Strike*

With the agreement of the men to abide by the decision of the Commission which the British government appointed, late in August, the great strike in the British Isles terminated. The men returned to their work pending a



DR. MANOEL ARRIAGA, THE FIRST CONSTITUTIONAL
PRESIDENT OF PORTUGAL, ELECTED LAST MONTH

thorough investigation by the Commission. There was some disorder at various points in England during the last hours the men were out, and destructive riots at two or three points in Wales, chiefly directed against the businesses conducted by Hebrews. There is apparently complete satisfaction on the part of both companies and men as to the personnel and experience of the Commissioners. These "pacifators," whose portraits we



BRITISH RAILWAY STRIKE COMMISSION

(Railway Commission appointed by the British Government to inquire into the working of the railroads conciliation and arbitration agreement, as the outcome of the recent strike. Front row sitting: Sir Thomas Ratcliffe Ellis, Sir David Harrel, K.C.V.O. (Chairman), Mr. Arthur Henderson, M.P. Back row: Mr. John Burnett, Sir Charles G. Beale (Board of Trade), Mr. J. J. Wills, Secretary.

show on this page are: Sir Thomas Ratcliffe Ellis, Secretary of the Mine Owners' Association, and Sir Charles G. Beale, Vice Chancellor of the University of Birmingham, for the companies; and Mr. Arthur Henderson, Labor member of Parliament, and Mr. John Burnett, chief Labor correspondent of the Board of Trade, for the men. The Chairman of the Commission is Sir David Harrel, formerly under Secretary for Ireland. These gentlemen are authorized in their corporate capacity to "investigate the workings of the conciliation and arbitration agreement of 1907, and report what changes, if any, are desirable, with a view to a prompt and satisfactory settlement of differences." The railroad companies, according to the terms of the settlement, agreed to reinstate the strikers "without prejudice." In some cases, however, the men complained that their places had

been filled by others. The strikers in general claim a victory because they have won official recognition, and the leaders call upon all the men to accept the agreement loyally. The loss to the railroad in the two days' strike is estimated at \$2,500,000.

*Bitter
Feeling
Left*

When the announcement of the names of the Commission was made in Parliament, Hon. Ramsay MacDonald, Chairman of the Parliamentary Labor Committee, assured the Commons that if the spirit shown on both sides during the preliminary negotiations should prevail in future relations, the country, he firmly believed, had heard the last of railway strikes for a generation. He, however, bitterly denounced Home Secretary Churchill for his "reckless display of military force." Most Englishmen, whether regarding the sub-

ject from the standpoint of capital or of labor—at least so we gather from the newspaper reports,—approve the government's method of settlement. Among employers of labor, however, there is a feeling of insecurity, since they regard the crisis as having been precipitated by the men's faithlessness to their agreement made four years ago. It seems likely that the course of the government in suppressing disorder by the use of the military will alienate the members of the Labor party in Parliament, to a certain extent, from the present administration with which they have heretofore generally worked in harmony. A strike on the Irish railways caused by some insignificant, personal grievance on the part of two station porters in Dublin, threatened, for a few days last month, to again involve the entire United Kingdom in a general tie-up of industries. The south and west of Ireland were, indeed, practically isolated from the rest of the Kingdom for a few days.

Agreeing
About
Morocco

The basis of an agreement in the dispute over Morocco was reached by France and Germany last month. The various points discussed and determined upon in the long series of "conversations," which extended over more than three months, however, were not made public. From semi-official sources, however, principally avowedly inspired articles in the *Temps*, of Paris, and the *Lokal Anzeiger*, of Berlin, it is evident that the broad lines of settlement are somewhat as follows: The French proposals state that the republic desires a free and untrammelled hand in Morocco, that she insists upon this freedom being secured by a treaty which shall have the plain and unmistakable assent of Germany and the rest of the nations which signed the Convention of Algeiras. For this freedom from any political interference in Morocco on the part of Germany, France is willing, in her own interest, to pay the price in Congo territory. Germany, says one of the inspired communications already referred to, cannot concede to France a protectorate over Morocco, for the Moorish Empire is an "independent country"; but she will acknowledge France's sole right to act as the mandatory of the powers as expressed in the treaty of Algeiras. She will also agree not to interfere with anything France may do in Morocco on condition that the corresponding "political obligations" are assumed by her, including the protectorate of life and property of German subjects, "thus putting an end to the anomalous situation under which the French authorities have here-

tofore sheltered themselves behind the native régime when German rights were infringed."

What
was the
Bargain?

All sorts of guesses have been made as to the exact amount and character of the "compensations" in Central Africa, which the French are willing to make to Germany, but, up to the middle of last month nothing was accurately known by the rest of the world. The exchanges of a number of definite, detailed proposals were made between the two capitals during late August and all the month of September, official couriers carrying drafts of the "notes" between Berlin and Paris to prevent any possible leakage to the press. On September 20, the German Foreign Office permitted the following official statement to get out for publication:

Germany pursues in Morocco no separate advantages for herself, but her proposals to the French have for their object to create guarantees that the "open door" and the equal opportunities for all nations be lastingly secured, not only on paper, but *de facto*. The French answer, in essential points, takes due account of these German endeavors. As regards some further points, the views of the two governments approach each other so far that, with some good will on both sides, an agreement can be counted upon. A few points, regarding which differences of view still exist, may necessitate some more protracted negotiations, but in this regard, also, it is hoped that the difficulties will be overcome, and an agreement arrived at.

On the same day it was announced by the *Frankfurter Zeitung* that an agreement had been reached on all points except minor ones, and that the program assures Germany's economic rights in Morocco. The new agreement, whatever its terms, ought to be sanctioned by other Powers in order to avoid all possibility of misunderstanding, and it is understood that France makes this suggestion in her proposals.

Rumors
of
War

The protracted character of the negotiations was responsible for much talk of ultimatums and war in the press of Europe and even this country. There were comparisons made of the war strength of France and Germany, and learned discussions of the realignment of all the great powers of Europe in case of a conflict between these two nations. The governments of both Holland and Belgium have "thought it wise" to strengthen their military forces on the French and German borders. The stock markets in London, Paris, and Berlin, which are always very closely and delicately articulated, were alternately depressed and elated last month as the speculation concerning the

progress of the negotiations went on in the press. A great deal of French money was withdrawn from Germany. Many of the Paris banks recalled their credits from German financial institutions, and it was reported that this caused considerable embarrassment to German business interests and resulted in pressure being brought upon the German Foreign Office at Berlin to be less exacting in its demands. Both governments took stock of their military and naval forces, and spectacular reviews of their ships of war were held by both Germany and France during early September. Army maneuvers were held in both countries, and there was also talk about the power of rapid mobilization in the German army, as well as the line of enormously strong fortresses which the French have erected to defend their eastern border. It is generally believed by those who are well informed on the international relations of Europe that the course of the French Government has been consistently and loyally supported during the negotiations by the British and Russian foreign offices. Germany, on the other hand, has undoubtedly had the frank and undeviating adherence of Austria and the covert sympathy of Spain.



MULAI HAFID, SULTAN OF MOROCCO
(The only ruler not consulted as to the fate of the Moorish empire)

Popular Feeling in Both Countries While there has been no section of the French people which has failed in loyal support of the republic's course, there has been considerable criticism in Germany of the rather high-handed manner in which Baron von Kiderlen-



THE FRENCH WORKMAN HAS SOMETHING TO SAY ABOUT WAR

MEMBER OF THE FRENCH TRADES UNIONS: "Hold on there. Mr. Mars! Don't you venture to cross the Rhine. There won't be any war. I have a voice in the matter"

From Mucha (Warsaw)

Waechter has attempted to coerce France. The German Socialists have expressed themselves as loyal citizens and ready to fight if the necessity arose. Nevertheless their leaders, notably Herr Bebel, have openly criticized the Foreign Minister for going so far in the negotiations that at one time any concession did not seem to be possible without injury to the prestige of the fatherland. Several monster mass meetings of Socialists took place in Berlin last month. The one held in Treptow Park was the largest open air gathering ever assembled in the German capital. More than 100,000 men and women, representing Greater Berlin's organized labor, attended the meeting to protest against the war propaganda of the jingoistic Pan-German society. At each of the ten platforms from which Socialist deputies to the Reichstag, or Socialist candidates for the next session of Germany's Parliament spoke, a resolution was passed condemning incitement to war. In answer to the demand on a huge banner suddenly raised, labelled: "Hands Up For Peace," it estimated that everyone present responded. At the same time as the *Vorwärts*, the organ of the Socialist-Democrats of Germany, was displaying the headlines: "Morocco is not worth the bones of a single German workman!" and "Long live solidarity with our English and French brothers!" French radical journals were repeating similar sentiments, and while patriotic in tone, declaring themselves as unalterably opposed to war.

Some
Arguments on
Both Sides

The French naturally resent the German contention that they must "compensate" Germany for something that they have already won at great sacrifices and in which the Germans have but a small stake; that they should be forced to give hostages lest they are not acting properly in securing what they have already won. They characterize as brutal the German method of sending a warship into a port in the French sphere of influence, and then demanding payment for leaving. It is difficult for French and English statesmen and journals to understand how France's course in Morocco, which the Germans have been characterizing as robbery and oppression of an independent sovereign, can become right and proper when German objections are bought off by land in the Congo. That this point of view is shared by at least some men in Germany is evident from the fact that Maximilian Harden, the courageous editor of the *Zukunft*, has recently, in his magazine, openly called upon Herr von Kiderlen-Waechter to "cease posing as the champion of the oppressed Moors," to forget the solemn, diplomatic phraseology of the "Open Door and equal commercial opportunity" and to frankly appeal to the 5,000,000 bayonets behind him. There has never been any serious doubt of France's ability and willingness to protect Germany's commercial interests in Morocco; and it is difficult for the rest of the world to see in the sabre-rattling attitude of the German Foreign Office in this Moroccan business anything more than one more illustration of the cynical European doctrine that "might makes right." The negotiations were conducted on the German side by the Foreign Minister, Baron von Kiderlen-Waechter, with "frequent editing," as the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* puts it, by the Kaiser, and on the French side by Ambassador Jules Cambon at Berlin, with official instructions from Foreign Minister de Selves at Paris, but, as we remark on another page, at the inspiration and instigation of the dominant figure of the French Cabinet, M. Theophile Delcassé, Minister of Marine, and real Premier of the administration.

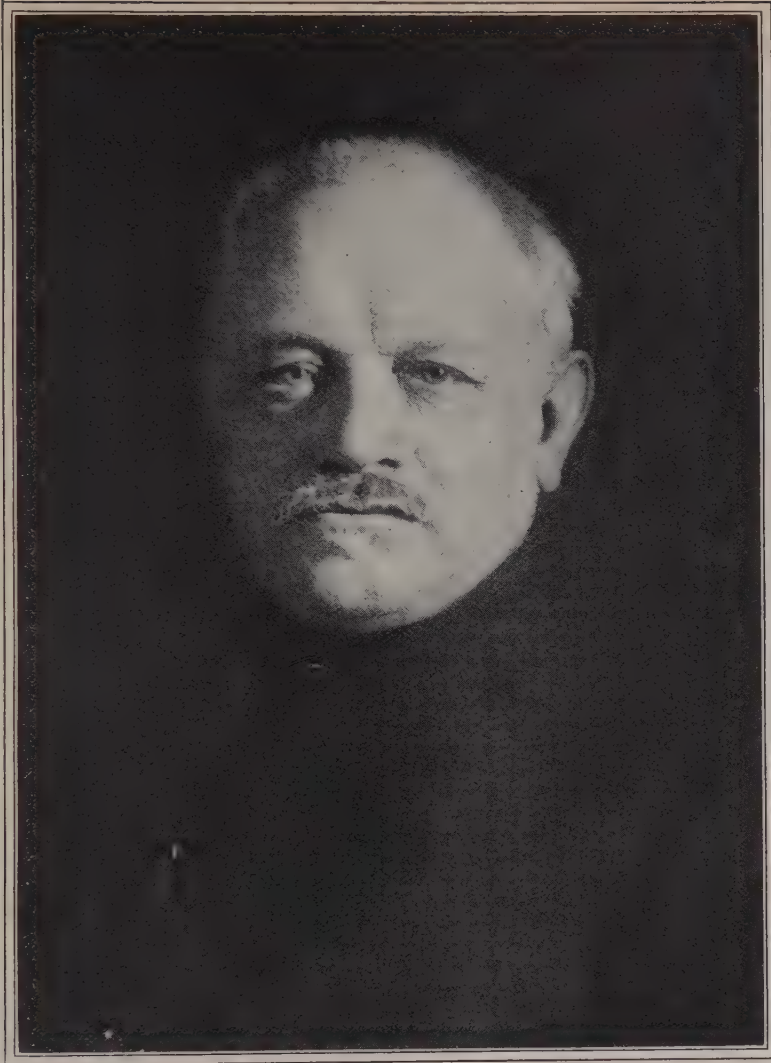
Storm, Flood
and Fiery
Lava

Vast convulsions of nature and social and economic disturbances on a large scale, involving great human suffering and destitution were reported from different parts of the globe last month. Late in August, the city and harbor of Charleston, S. C., were the storm center of a hurricane that swept the entire Atlantic

coast. Fifteen lives were lost and more than one million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. A large proportion of the famous Sea Island cotton crop was destroyed. But vaster catastrophes shook the old world. Heartrending reports of fearful mortality and ruin of crops and rapidly spreading famine conditions have come from several provinces of China, which it appears periodically suffer from the overflow of the Yangtse River. Appeals have been made to Europe and America for relief. The cause of the periodical Chinese flood and the consequent ruin of crops and famine appears to be not only lack of any system of regulating the Yellow River, but the vast scheme of corrupt speculation in grain which is a feature of Chinese business and politics. Southern Italy has been panic-stricken by the fear of a cholera epidemic. Although the authorities now have the disease well in hand, during the week beginning August 20, the official records show that there were more than 1600 cases, with 593 deaths. Some disorder, with attacks upon hospitals in Naples, and some of the smaller towns have hindered the government's work in stamping out the plague. At the same time a violent eruption of Mt. Etna destroyed a good deal of property and forced the inhabitants of the surrounding country to the number of more than 40,000 to flee from their homes.

Hunger,
Strikes and
Riots

No sooner had the strike on the British transportation lines ceased,—just in time to avoid a real shortage of provisions in England,—than several rural districts in France became worked up over the increased cost of food used by the poorer classes, and radical agitators took advantage of this to engineer demonstrations against the food ships and the residences of the wealthier residents in Paris and other cities. In the northern departments of the republic violence in more than fifty towns was reported by the middle of last month. Parades, consisting largely of women, bearing banners such as: "Butter at a Price That We Can Pay or Revolution," "Meat, not Morocco," and others, marched through the streets. The General Confederation of Labor took up the agitation, and the Ministry has devoted several entire sessions to considering what could be done to appease the populace. In Vienna, on September 17, severe riots took place. These, it was reported, were at the instigation of the Social Democrats against the high cost of living, and resulted in many encounters between the police and the mob. Poor crops have been the rule this



AMBASSADOR JULES CAMBON, WHO CONDUCTED THE FRENCH NEGOTIATIONS OVER MOROCCO WITH THE GERMAN FOREIGN MINISTER

summer in many parts of Europe, and food prices, especially that of bread, have moved up sharply in consequence. Among the seditious cries noted during the Vienna demonstration was the oft-repeated one of "Hurrah for Portugal!" It was explained that, in the minds of the populace, the republican form of government is sure to bring better living conditions for the masses. Therefore, the Portuguese have demonstrated much economic wisdom, of which "Austrians are not capable." On September 19, martial law was proclaimed in the Austrian capital, for the first time since the revolution of 1849. With the military in charge, and the government taking active measures to, at

least temporarily, reduce the tariff on imported meat and other food stuffs, the situation quieted down.

*Spain
Again in
Trouble*

The strikes and violence in Spain, in the early part of September, had become so formidable by the 19th, that a decree was issued "suspending the constitutional guarantees throughout the Kingdom." This is the Spanish official method of proclaiming martial law. Beginning with the strike of the iron workers in the mining districts around Bilbao, riotous demonstrations soon spread throughout the country. The radical elements, including the Anarchists and extreme Republicans, sup-

ported the strikers, their efforts being directed toward bringing about a general strike to tie up the business of the entire country. Indeed, the affiliated Spanish trades unions had decided, on September 19, to call such a general strike. The situation was worst in the Province of Valencia, and in that section a great deal of damage was done to property and some lives were lost. Premier Canalejas announced that the government had in its possession details of a revolutionary plot, which included a plan to assassinate Captain-General Weyler of Catalonia. Anti-monarchical sentiments are growing in Spain despite the praiseworthy and persevering efforts of the popular young King Alfonso to make the present form of government appeal to the people. Even the young monarch himself is said to be secretly pro-Republican. He is reported to have remarked in a recent interview with one of the Republican leaders:

I am monarchical because I was born a King. Had it been otherwise, nobody knows what my opinions might have been. Who knows but that we shall soon all be republicans? The atmosphere in Spain is throbbing with intrigue and revolution. There are secret meetings, wild confiscations by the police, mysterious arrests, and hurried movements of troops. From this condition of affairs there is no relief in sight.

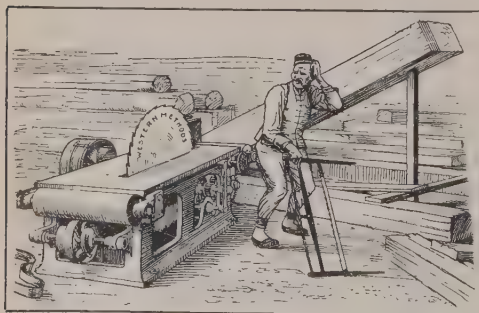
Russia's
Premier Shot
Down

The attack by an assassin on Premier Stolypin of Russia, on September 14, at Kiev, and his death four days later, is likely to exert an important influence on the revolutionary movement which has been proceeding slowly but steadily for almost a decade in the empire of the Czar. Stolypin had been Premier since July, 1906. During that time he ruled Russia with a strong hand, never permitting any of his projects to be blocked by any action of

the Duma, and often completely ignoring, or roughly brushing aside the opposition of this pseudo-Parliament. Ever since the initial force of the revolutionary movement began to wane, about five or six years ago, and Stolypin came into public view as Governor of the Province of Saratov, he has been an object of hatred to all the revolutionists and the despair of the Liberal element. His prosecutions of the radicals were so vigorous, and even violent soon after his advent to the Premiership, that "Stolypin's Necktie" soon became the synonym for the hangman's noose all over Russia. On another page this month, we have more to say about the late Premier's personality and the results of his work during the five years he was at the head of the government in St. Petersburg.

Was It a
Plot?

Stolypin took the helm of state during the confusion following the overthrow of the first Duma, and since then there have been many intrigues against him and several attempts on his life. In August, 1906, a desperate plot and wholesale murder intending to include the Premier among its victims, was carried out at his country house near St. Petersburg, by the explosion of a bomb. The Premier was slightly hurt and his daughter and one of his cabinet ministers seriously wounded, while a provincial governor and two of the assassins themselves were killed. The present attempt on his life was made during a gala performance at the opera in Kiev, and in the presence of the Czar. Some of the "true Russian" papers have been insisting that the assassin, a lawyer named Dmitry Bogroff, is a Jew. Consequently the occurrence is expected to be followed by a revival of pogroms against the unfortunate Hebrews all over the empire.



WILL CHINA SUCCEED IN MODERNIZING HERSELF?

(The Chinese native journals and the periodicals published in English in the Empire, are full of articles and cartoons pointing out the necessity for the adoption of modern methods by the Chinese Government. The two we reproduce above, both from the *National Review*, published in English in Shanghai, set forth this "campaign." The first shows the Chinese workman hesitating between ancient and modern industrial methods. The second represents Uncle Sam, John Bull, Germany and France urging Old China to take the plunge into the "Pool of Sound Finance," because the water is fine)

*The Revolt
in Sze-Chuen,
China*

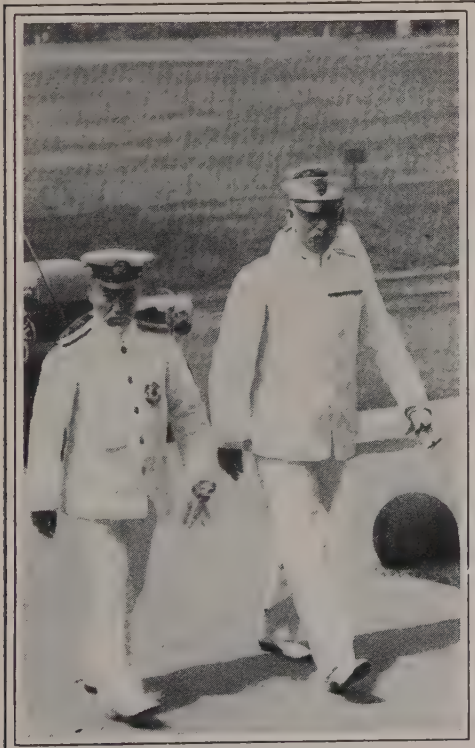
A revolt of very serious proportions broke out in the Province of Sze-Chuen, China, late in August. By the middle of last month this had spread so widely and resulted in such destruction of property and menace to life that the government at Peking had begun to regard it as a real revolution, and the foreign powers were contemplating the despatch of warships to protect their nationals and missionaries. Sze-Chuen is one of the most densely populated of the Chinese provinces, containing, according to the most reliable census reports, more than 70,000,000 people. It covers a large area of mountainous and plain country rich in mineral and agricultural wealth. Its people are industrious, but, owing to the lack of transportation facilities, they apparently have little in common with the rest of the Empire. Reactionary influences in the province are endeavoring to check the plans of the central government for development and progress, particularly to prevent the construction of railroads to bring the larger towns into communication with the capital. The spirit of unrest is abroad in China, and the political



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REAR ADMIRAL CHING PIH KWONG

(The Chinese naval commander who brought over the cruiser *Hai Chi* last month, the first Chinese warship to visit American waters)



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ADMIRAL TOGO AT WEST POINT

(Major General Thomas H. Barry escorting the famous Japanese sea fighter to the review of Uncle Sam's crack soldier boys, held in his honor)

oppressions of the Manchu rulers are made more burdensome by the natural calamities of flood and famine to which we have already referred. Many keen observers of Chinese conditions are predicting that the present uprising will be the precursor of an empire-wide revolution that will drive the Manchus from the Celestial throne. Reports received in London from missionary sources late last month, indicated that the entire Province of Sze-Chuen was in revolt.

*Government
us.
Populace*

It is a convincing illustration of the difference between the workings of the Chinese mind and the mentality of the West that this revolution, if revolution it be, now going on in China, is not an attempt of the people to secure new liberties from a government that seeks to deny them and to preserve the existing state of affairs. Such has been the character of almost every revolution recorded in the history of the West. In China, however, "the people" are always the fierce and obstinate conservatives, resenting any effort to make them depart from their ancient ways. The

rulers of the empire now realize the inadequacy of their civilization to meet the conditions of modern life, but the masses still believe in their own superiority to all "foreign devils." More people would be involved in a real revolution in China, with greater and more serious consequences to the rest of mankind, probably, than a war between France and Germany. These European nations, however, are separated from us by only 3000 miles of the earth's surface. China is 10,000 miles and 3000 years away from us. Therefore, our lack of concern in her titanic struggles with nature and her political and economic problems.

Reorganizing the Navy

The final scheme for the reorganization of the Chinese navy covers a period of seven years. It includes the establishment of two naval training colleges, a school of gunnery, and one of naval construction; a thorough reorganization of the personnel of the service, and the building of eight first-class battleships, twenty fast cruisers, ten auxiliary ships, and torpedo boat destroyers sufficient to make up three properly organized fleets. Significant and impressive evidences of the up-to-date military and naval equipment of the Orient has been furnished, during the past few weeks, to the American people, by the visit to this country of the famous Admiral Togo, Japan's victorious sea-fighter during the war with Russia, and of the Chinese cruiser *Hai Chi*, the first Chinese warship to come into American waters. Admiral Togo's visit has already been recorded and commented upon in these pages. Rear Admiral Ching Pih Kwong and his alert, intelligent Jack Tars made an excellent impression upon American naval men and upon the public of the cities he visited last month. We reproduce on the preceding pages snapshots of these two Oriental sailormen.

Change of Cabinet in Japan

Another cabinet change has been brought about in Japan, owing to the inability of Count Katsura to keep promises made to the country that taxes should not be increased to meet the financial obligations of the empire at home and abroad. Count Katsura resigned on August 25. Early last month the Emperor summoned Marquis Saionji to form a new cabinet. The new ministers who are likely to be interesting figures in the conduct of Japan's foreign relations during the next few months are Count Hayashi, who temporarily takes the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Yamamoto, former Governor of the Bank of Japan, who will be Minister of

Utilizing the Carnegie Peace Fund

The chief work of the Berne International Peace Conference, held early in August in the Swiss capital, was the formulation of a program to carry out funds recently made available by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. This conference, in which all the great powers of the world took part, appointed three commissions to draft questions and problems to be dealt with under the provisions of this endowment fund. The first commission considered "the economic and historical causes and effects of war," the second "armaments in time of peace," and the third "the unifying influences in international life." The suggestions contained in the reports of these three commissions were considered and approved by the entire conference. Commission No. 1 recommended researches into the causes of wars in modern times, dividing these minutely into details and considering among others the following: conflicts of economic interests (tariffs and international loans and investments); the anti-militarist movement (from political and religious standpoints); the position of organized labor and the Socialists; the influence of women and woman suffrage; the effects of war (financially and economically as affecting food supplies and influencing national energy); loss of human life (with its effect on population, birth rate and sanitary conditions). The report of Commission No. 2 considered the causes of armaments and discussed historically and economically the rivalry in competition in the armed strength of the nations. The report of Commission No. 3 expressed the opinion that "the economic life of individual countries has definitely ceased to be self-contained and that, notwithstanding the barriers raised by fiscal duties, it is becoming in ever-increasing measure a part of an economic life in which the whole world participates."

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From August 21 to September 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

August 21.—The House adopts the Senate amendments to the Cotton bill.

August 22.—The House receives the President's veto of the Cotton bill. . . . The special session of the Sixty-Second Congress, called by the President to consider the Canadian Reciprocity agreements, adjourns *sine die*.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

August 21.—President Taft signs the joint resolution of Congress admitting Arizona and New Mexico to statehood, under certain prescribed conditions. . . . Colonel Roosevelt announces that under no circumstances will he consent to the use of his name for the Presidential nomination of 1912. . . . Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, testifies before the House committee investigating the charges against Dr. Wiley. . . . The first public hearing on the proposed new charter for New York City is held.

August 22.—President Taft vetoes the Cotton bill, alleging that it was hastily drawn.

August 23.—Speaking before the national encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic, President Taft discusses the proposed arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France. . . . The army estimates for 1912 call for an expenditure of \$94,210,400.

August 24.—The President begins his vacation at Beverly, Mass.

August 25.—Postmaster-General Hitchcock announces that he is in favor of a parcels post, to be tried out in the rural districts.

August 26.—The first election under the new primary law in Maryland results in the selection of Arthur P. Gorman as the Democratic nominee for Governor.

August 28.—The Postmaster-General rules that no stamps other than postage stamps can be used on the face of envelopes.

August 29.—The city of Paterson, N. J., rejects, by an overwhelming majority, the commission plan of government.

August 30.—New Mexico's first State election is set for November 7.

August 31.—President Taft, speaking before the American Bar Association, at Boston, urges the ratification of the arbitration treaties with France and Great Britain.

September 2.—The voters of Omaha, Neb., declare in favor of the commission form of government.

September 5.—Senator Cummins, of Iowa, issues a statement setting forth his reasons why President Taft should not be renominated.

September 7.—In the Virginia primary, Thomas S. Martin (Dem.) is reelected to the United States Senate, and Claude A. Swanson (Dem.) is chosen to serve for the unexpired term of the late Senator Daniel. . . . Arthur P. Gorman (Dem.) and Phillips Lee Goldsborough (Rep.) are nominated for Governor of Maryland by the State conventions.

September 9.—Governor Harmon, of Ohio, speaking at Boston, severely criticizes President Taft's vetoes of tariff bills.

September 11.—The prohibitory amendment to the Maine constitution is repealed, at a special election, by a majority of twenty-six votes.

September 12.—The third Conference of Governors begins its sessions at Spring Lake, N. J.

September 13.—Mayor Gaynor states that the proposed new charter for New York City has been thoroughly revised by himself.

September 14.—Twenty-four of the State Governors in session at Spring Lake, N. J., unite in a protest to the United States Supreme Court against the alleged invasion of State rights by federal courts; Messrs. Harmon, Hadley, and Aldrich are named as a committee to present the Governors' case.

September 15.—President Taft starts from his summer home at Beverly, Mass., on a 13,000-mile trip through the West. . . . The charges against Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, Chief Chemist of the Department of Agriculture, are dismissed by the President as unfounded.

September 16.—The Governors of Utah, Idaho, Colorado, Wyoming, and Washington, addressing a woman-suffrage meeting in New York City, tell of the results of women voting in their respective States.

September 18.—President Taft, speaking at Detroit, defends the decisions of the Supreme Court in the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trust cases.

September 19.—Six officials of the United Shoe Machinery Company are indicted by a federal grand jury in Boston, charged with violation of the anti-trust law.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

August 21.—Sir J. P. Whitney, Premier of Ontario, expresses his belief that reciprocity with the United States would lead to annexation. . . . A Socialistic mass-meeting in Berlin protests against Germany's policy in the Moroccan controversy.

August 22.—The British Parliament adjourns to October 24. . . . Sir David Harrel is appointed chairman of the royal commission to inquire into the causes of the British railway strike.

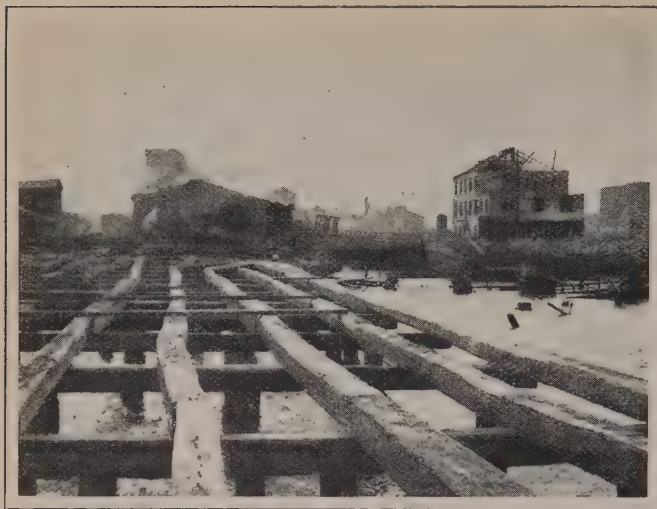
August 24.—Manoel de Arriaga is elected first President of Portugal by the Constituent Assembly. . . . Count Katsura resigns as Premier of Japan. . . . The Czar approves a bill, for submission to the Duma, adding part of Viborg province to that of St. Petersburg,—the first step in the partition of Finland.

August 25.—The French cabinet reaches an agreement on the maximum terms which will be offered to Germany in the Moroccan affair.

August 27.—A revolutionary plot implicating ex-President Davilla is discovered in Honduras.

August 28.—Redmond Barry is appointed Lord Chancellor of Ireland.

August 29.—The first anniversary of the annexation of Korea to Japan is celebrated at Seoul. . . .



SCENE ON THE CHARLESTON WATER-FRONT AFTER THE RECENT HURRICANE AND FLOOD

A new Peruvian ministry is formed by Auguste Ganoza.

August 30.—The National Progressive party in Mexico nominates Francisco I. Madero, Jr., for President. . . . Marquis Saionji succeeds in forming a ministry in Japan; Viscount Uchida, ambassador to the United States, is chosen as Minister of Foreign Affairs.

August 31.—The director of the Louvre is suspended for negligence in connection with the theft of the "Mona Lisa."

September 1.—Gen. Emilio Estrada is inaugurated President of Ecuador.

September 2.—Joao Chagas forms a cabinet in Portugal to succeed the provisional one which resigned on August 28. . . . Steps are taken by the Government to suppress the food riots in the north of France, but it is decided not to lower the tariff on meats and provisions.

September 3.—Gen. Bernardo Reyes, candidate for President of Mexico, is stoned by a mob of Maderists in the capital.

September 4.—President Fallières reviews at Toulon more than fifty war vessels, the most powerful fleet that France ever assembled.

September 5.—More than 100 warships of the German navy are reviewed by the Kaiser at Kiel; the recent completion of three first-class battleships is believed to displace the United States as the second naval power.

September 6.—The forces of the deposed Shah Ali Mohammed are severely routed by Persian troops near Teheran.

September 7.—The French cabinet discusses measures to ameliorate the situation caused by the high cost of living. . . . It is announced at Lisbon that 12,000 Portuguese troops are assembled on the northern frontier to guard against a Monarchist invasion. . . . It is reported that the revolution in Ecuador has been effectually checked.

September 11.—The German army maneuvers, the greatest ever held, are begun in Pomerania.

September 12.—The Viceroy of Sze-Chuen province, China, is commanded by imperial edict

to suppress the uprising. . . . It is announced at Washington that Japan will abandon its naval station at Port Arthur, Manchuria, and open it for use of the merchant marine.

September 13.—Premier Laurier states that he has never experienced so dishonest a fight as is being waged by the anti-American faction in the Canadian election.

September 14.—Premier Stolypin, of Russia, is shot and fatally wounded by a Jewish Socialist named Bogroff during a theatrical performance at Kiev. . . . It is believed in Persia that the former Shah has abandoned his attempt to regain the throne.

September 18.—R. L. Borden, the Canadian Opposition leader, expresses his belief that reciprocity with the United States is not a commercial question but one of the destiny of the Dominion.

September 19.—A serious Socialist uprising threatens throughout Spain; a general strike of all labor unions is decided upon, and the country is practically under martial law.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

August 28.—The Emperors of Russia and Japan exchange telegrams of felicitation upon the final settlement of all claims growing out of the recent war. . . . It is announced at Colon that the United States has acquired four small islands at the western end of the Panama Canal.

August 29.—More than 500 claims of American citizens against Mexico, for damages during the recent revolution, have been filed with the State Department at Washington.

August 31.—It is stated that France has offered Germany certain portions of the French Congo in exchange for absolute recognition of her rights in Morocco.

September 2.—A statue of Baron von Steuben, presented to Germany by the United States Congress, is unveiled at Potsdam and accepted by the Kaiser.

September 4.—Negotiations between France and Germany over the Moroccan affair are resumed at Berlin.

September 6.—Peruvians and Bolivians are again in conflict on the common border. . . . The Canadian Government seizes an American fishing schooner at Louisburg, C. B., alleging a violation of the treaty of 1818.

September 7.—Unrest in China over the Government's railroad policy causes a serious uprising in Sze-Chuen province, directed mainly against foreigners.

September 10.—The appointment of George Bakhmetiev as Russian ambassador to the United States is announced. . . . France receives Germany's counter proposals for a settlement of the Moroccan dispute.

September 11.—The owners of the American fishing schooner detained at Louisburg, C. B., are fined by the Canadian authorities for a breach of the fishing regulations.

September 13.—France rejects Germany's counter proposals in the Moroccan negotiations.

September 18.—Germany's reply to the latest French proposals concerning Morocco are handed to the French ambassador. . . . Advices from the besieged city of Cheng-tu, China, where the foreigners have assembled, state that they are unmolested and that food is coming into the city.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

August 21.—Most of the striking British railway employees return to work.

August 22.—"Monna Lisa," Da Vinci's famous painting, is stolen from the Louvre (see page 485).

August 23.—A committee of Southern members of Congress urges cotton growers to hold their product for thirteen cents and asks State banking associations to aid in the fight against speculators.

August 24.—The dock strike at Liverpool comes to an end, and 68,000 men return to work.

August 25.—Landing at Governors Island, Harry N. Atwood completes his aeroplane flight from St. Louis to New York (begun on August 14), establishing a new world's record for distance. . . . Twenty-eight persons lose their lives in the wreck of a Lehigh Valley train which jumped the track on a viaduct near Manchester, N. Y. . . . Judge Harvey M. Trimble, of Illinois, is elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic at the national encampment at Rochester, N. Y. . . . The seventh annual Esperanto Congress, at Antwerp, comes to an end.

August 26.—Andre Jaeger-Schmidt, arriving at Paris, completes a voyage around the world in 39 days, 19 hours, and 43 minutes. . . . A false alarm of fire during a moving-picture performance at Canonsburg, Pa., causes a stampede and the death of twenty-six persons from suffocation. . . . A shell fired from a gun designed for use against air craft reaches an altitude of 18,000 feet at the proving grounds at Indian Head, Md. . . . The Argentine battleship *Rivadavia*, the largest in the world, is launched at Quincy, Mass. . . . A lockout is declared against 60 per cent. of the metal workers at Dresden and Chemnitz. . . . Frost causes considerable damage to wheat in Alberta and Saskatchewan, Canada.

August 27.—A wind storm with a velocity of eighty-five miles an hour strikes Charleston, S. C., causing the loss of fifteen lives and the destruction of property amounting to a million dollars. . . . The Pope receives the Cardinal Archbishop of Rio de Janeiro and bestows the apostolic blessing on the churches of South America.

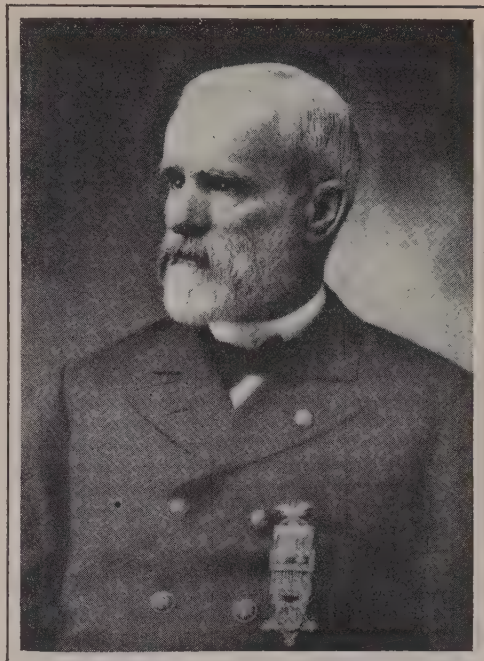
August 29.—Admiral Togo sails for Japan from Seattle.

August 31.—Twenty-five deaths from cholera occur in Constantinople. . . . The month's output of gold from the Transvaal mines amounts to \$14,757,853, a new record.

September 1.—Serious rioting occurs throughout France during demonstrations against the high prices of foodstuffs. . . . Vice-President Kruttschnitt, of the Harriman lines, following a conference at San Francisco, refuses the demands for recognition of the Federation of Shop Employees.

September 3.—Ten thousand persons attend the annual "love feast" of the Camp Meeting Association at Ocean Grove, N. J.

September 4.—Roland G. Garros ascends in an aeroplane at Paramé, France, to a height of 13,943



JUDGE HARVEY M. TRIMBLE, OF ILLINOIS
(Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic)

feet, a new world's record. . . . The British Trades Union Congress, representing more than a million and a half workers, begins its sessions at Newcastle, England.

September 5.—A company is formed to operate a freight and passenger service from New York to San Francisco, via the Panama Canal. . . . Great floods, affecting more than 700 miles of the Yangtze-Kiang valley, cause the death of several hundred Chinese natives each day. . . . Textile mills in New England employing 55,000 workers are reopened. . . . An unusually long period of rainy weather effectually puts an end to New York City's threatened water famine.

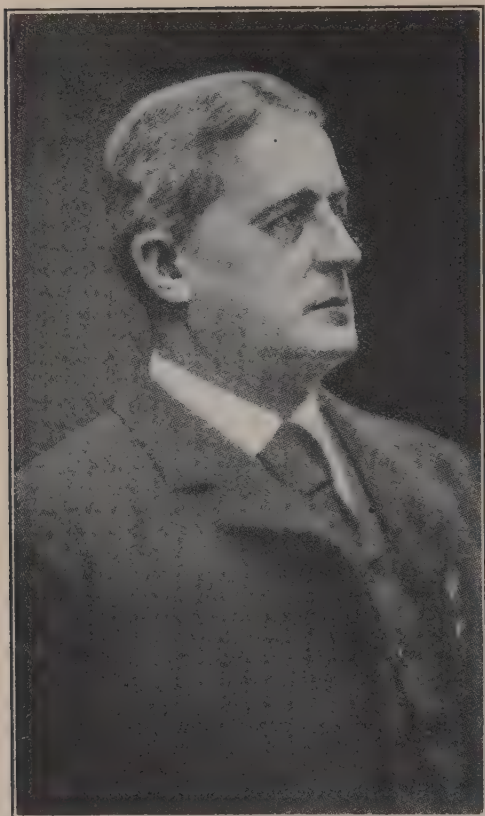
September 8.—M. Helles, a French aviator, flies 776 miles at Etampes, in a little over fourteen hours.

September 9.—Forty persons are injured in the cheaper-food riots at Brest, France. . . . An aerial post service is inaugurated in England between Hendon and Windsor Castle, about twenty miles apart. . . . A \$100,000,000 corporation is formed to take over the trolley lines in California controlled by the Southern Pacific Railroad.

September 11.—Mount Etna is in violent eruption; it is reported that a lava stream 2000 feet wide and four feet deep is pouring down its sides. . . . The cruiser *Hai Chi*, the first Chinese warship to enter the port of New York, drops anchor in the Hudson River. . . . Robert G. Fowler leaves San Francisco in an attempt to fly to New York.

September 13.—James J. Ward, of Chicago, starts from New York City in an attempt to fly in an aeroplane to the Pacific Coast. . . . It is acknowledged by German and French military officers, at the end of their respective maneuvers, that the aeroplane is of incalculable value for purposes of observation.

OBITUARY



THE LATE COL. JOHN MCCOOK, OF NEW YORK
(Youngest of the "Fighting McCooks," a noted Ohio family
in the Civil War. His father, his eight older brothers,
and five cousins were all officers in the Union
army, except one lad who as a private
fell at Bull Run)

September 14.—Refined sugar is quoted at $7\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pound wholesale in New York City, as compared with 4-5 cents in February last. . . . The eruption of Mount Etna continues, it being estimated that 20,000 persons have been rendered homeless. . . . It is reported from Constantinople that the cholera epidemic has wiped out whole villages.

September 16.—A racing automobile at the State Fair at Syracuse, N. Y., crashes through a fence and causes the death of ten persons.

September 17.—It is reported that the lava flow from Mt. Etna has decreased slightly. . . . C. P. Rodgers, starting from New York, becomes the third entrant in the transcontinental aeroplane race for a \$50,000 prize.

September 18.—Martial law is declared in Vienna following several days' rioting over the high price of foodstuffs. . . . Railway traffic in Ireland is completely tied up by a strike on the three principal systems.

September 20.—The mammoth steamship *Olympic*, with nearly 2000 returning Americans on board, is rammed by the British cruiser *Hawke*, off Southampton; both vessels are considerably damaged.

August 21.—Gamaliel Bradford, the political economist and anti-imperialist, 80. . . . William Rotch Wister, known as "the father of American cricket," 84. . . . Major George Chappell, past grand commander of the Grand Army of the Republic in New York, 81.

August 22.—Martin Dewey Follette, former judge of the Ohio Supreme Court and a noted criminologist, 84.

August 25.—William Street Hutchings, formerly well known as Barnum's "lightning calculator," 80.

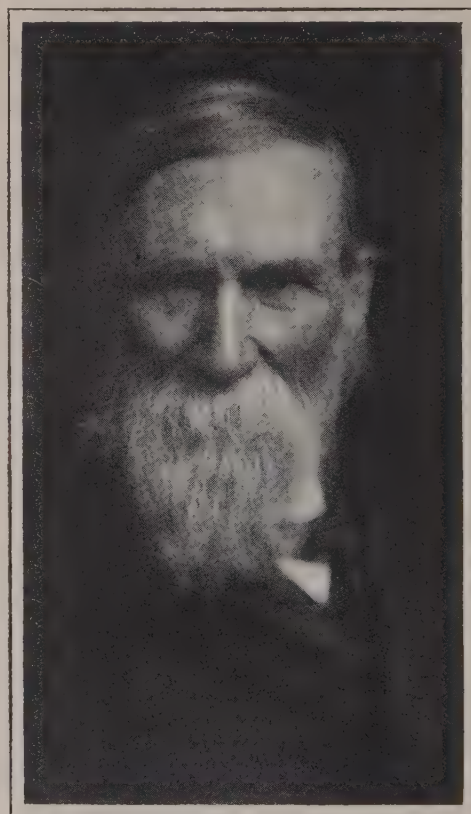
August 26.—Rev. John Bancroft Devins, editor and owner of the New York *Observer*, 54. . . . Edward L. Curtis, professor of Greek at the Yale Divinity School, 57.

August 28.—Max Gebhard Seckendorff, a widely known newspaper writer of Washington, 58.

August 29.—Asaf Jan Nizam-ul-Mulk, premier prince of the Indian Empire, 45.

September 1.—Benjamin H. Grierson, major-general of volunteers at the close of the Civil War, 85. . . . Bradford Lee Gilbert, architect of New York's first skyscraper.

September 2.—Roger Quarles Mills, formerly Congressman and United States Senator from Texas, and author of the Mills tariff bill of 1887, 79.



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PROFESSOR FRANCIS A. MARCH, OF
LAFAYETTE COLLEGE

(The eminent philologist who died on September 9, at
the age of eighty-six)

September 3.—Brig.-Gen. Charles R. Greenleaf, U. S. A., retired, an authority on military hygiene, 73.

September 5.—Leopold Flameng, a noted French engraver, 79.

September 6.—Mrs. Katherine Cecil Thurston, the novelist. . . . Armand Cochefort, chief of the detective service of Paris during the Dreyfus affair, 61.

September 7.—Prof. Masuchika Shimose, inventor of the high explosive used by the Japanese navy, 52.

September 8.—Dr. Thomas Dwight, Parkman professor of anatomy at Harvard University, 67. . . . Francis LeBaron Robbins, the prominent Pittsburgh coal operator, 56. . . . Luigi Vannuncini, a prominent Italian pedagogue.

September 9.—Prof. Francis Andrew March, the noted philologist of Lafayette College, 86. . . . Col. J. C. Gordon, the Confederate leader, conspicuous at Chickamauga, 77.

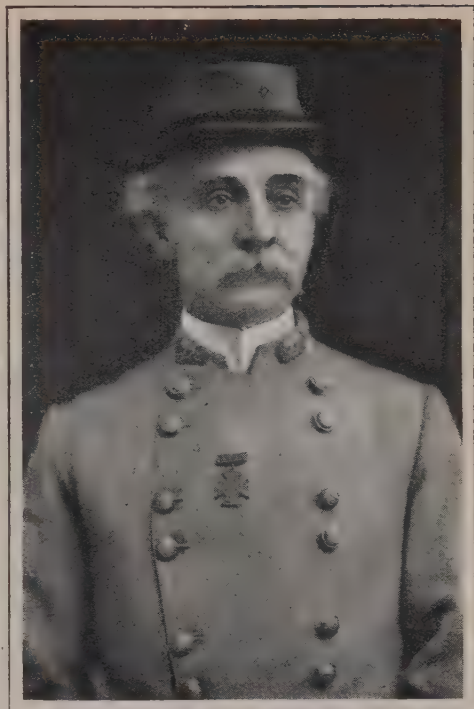
September 10.—James Russell Soley, author of many works on naval history and former Assistant Secretary of the Navy, 60. . . . Ex-Congressman Edward H. Funston, of Kansas, 75. . . . Edward Butler, formerly Democratic "boss" of St. Louis, 73. . . . Dr. George F. Harris, a prominent Pennsylvania physician, 68. . . . Dr. George Alexander De Santos Saxe, an eminent New York gynecologist, 35. . . . Rev. Mother Sarah Jones, superior vicar of the Sacred Heart Convent at Kenwood, N. Y., 88. . . . Mrs. Samantha Breniholz, chief telegrapher of the Union army during the battle of Gettysburg, 75. . . . Rev. Dr. George Thomson Knight, a widely known author and lecturer on theological subjects, 60.

September 11.—Congressman James P. Latta, of the Third Nebraska District, 67. . . . Carola Woerishoffer, special State investigator of labor conditions in New York, 25. . . . Rev. Dr. Freeman Pratt Tower, formerly president of Montana Wesleyan College. . . . Captain George Edward Merritt, a pioneer navigator on the Great Lakes, 68.

September 12.—John Souther, a pioneer manufacturer of excavating machinery and locomotives, 97. . . . Most Rev. William Alexander, D.D., Archbishop of Armagh and Primate of All Ireland (Church of Ireland), 87.

September 14.—Rt. Hon. Edmund Robertson, Baron Lochee, the well-known British student of American affairs, 66. . . . Mrs. Elizabeth Edson Evans, a well-known American author living in Germany, 79.

September 15.—Joel Benton, the poet, 80. . . . Gen. William Robertson Boggs, of the Confederate army, 83. . . . William T. Smithers, Secretary of State of Delaware, 58.



THE LATE GEN. GEORGE W. GORDON
(Commander-in-Chief of the United Confederate Veterans
and Member of Congress from Tennessee)

September 16.—Edward Whympers, the first man to ascend the Matterhorn, 71. . . . Brig.-Gen. Michael R. Morgan, U. S. A., retired, 78. . . . Mother Mary Monica, head of the Order of Felician Sisters in America, 83.

September 17.—Thomas H. Carter, twice a Senator from Montana, 56. . . . Col. John James McCook, conspicuous for gallantry during the Civil War and later an eminent corporation lawyer of New York, 66. . . . Rev. Dr. Samuel Henderson Virgin, a prominent Congregational minister of New York, noted for his oratory, 69.

September 18.—Peter A. Stolypin, Premier of Russia, 50. . . . Edmond H. Madison, "Insurgent" Representative from the Seventh Kansas District, 46. . . . Max Hugo Liebermann von Sonnenberg, a prominent member of the German Reichstag, 63.

September 19.—Gen. Antenor Firmin, a former President of Haiti. . . . Ex-Congressman Reuben K. Bachman, of Pennsylvania, 77.

September 20.—Sir Robert Hart, the eminent authority on Chinese commercial affairs, 76.



CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



THE stirring campaign on the issue of reciprocity occupied the center of the stage in Canada last month, culminating in the election on September 21. The fight waxed exceedingly hot on both sides, the newspapers of the Dominion pouring forth an unbroken stream of forcible text and striking cartoons for and against the reciprocity proposal. A few cartoons, both Canadian and American, are reproduced on this page, and others are reprinted in our editorial department, where the subject of the Canadian elections is commented upon.



RECIPROCITY—OR—ANIMOSITY?

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



WHY? OH, WHY?
—and echo answers Why?

From the *Herald* (Montreal)



STATING A WELL-KNOWN FACT

ENGINEER BORDEN (to Canada): "If that leak is not stopped at once, the hole will increase in size until the entire flood washes down over our prosperous country, leaving ruin and destruction in its wake"

From the *Star* (Montreal)



"WAY DOWN IN MY HEART I'VE GOT A FEELING FOR YOU"

From the *Herald* (Washington)

The cartoon printed above would seem to presage no very tender treatment of the Tariff Board at the hands of Congress, which may desire to do its own tariff tinkering, unassisted by boards, when it meets again in December. The other cartoons on this page have to do with President Taft's extended trip through the West, which began on September 15. This trip of the President's has provoked a great many cartoons, represent-



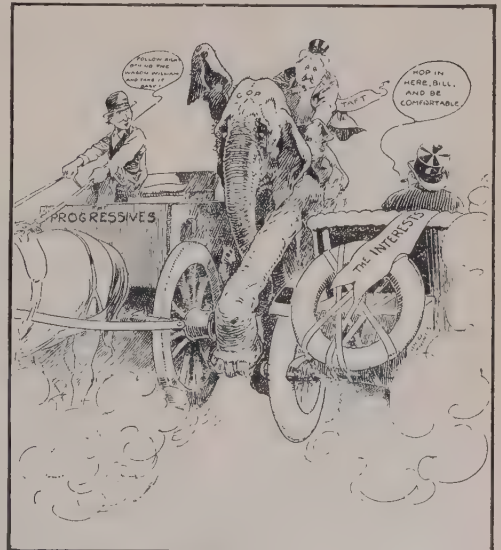
PRESIDENT TAFT ON HIS 13,000-MILE CIRCUIT

From the *American* (New York)

ing him variously as defender of the arbitration treaties, of reciprocity, of his attitude on the tariff, and as the antagonist of the insurgents, making an expedition into "the enemies' country."



A CHANCE FOR ANOTHER ARBITRATION TREATY
From the *Tribune* (New York)



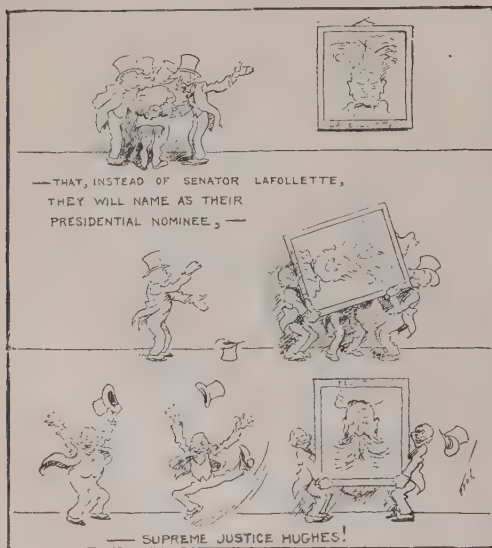
IN THE MIDDLE OF THE ROAD
There are going to be some critical moments
From the *Daily News* (Chicago)



THE REPUBLICAN REGULARS TO THE INSURGENTS: "HOW WOULD YOU LIKE TO PLAY SECOND FIDDLE?"

From the *Herald* (Washington)

Judging by the cartoons appearing in the newspapers, the ante-convention battle between the Insurgents and the Administration is already on. The embarrassing "split" in the Grand Old Party is painfully apparent. One cartoonist suggests that the Insurgents may be asked to play second fiddle and take the Vice-Presidential nomination, while others opine that they will have a Presidential candidate of their own in Justice Hughes..



THE PROGRESSIVE REPUBLICANS HAVE DECIDED— (see above)

From the *Evening Post* (Chicago)



CALLING PARTICULAR ATTENTION TO THAT GRAND OLD PARTY SPLIT. From the *Evening Post* (Chicago)



WHICH MEDICINE? A PROBLEM FOR 1912
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



ALPHONSE AND GASTON. From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



PRESIDENT AND EX-PRESIDENT ON THE NEW ARBITRATION TREATIES
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



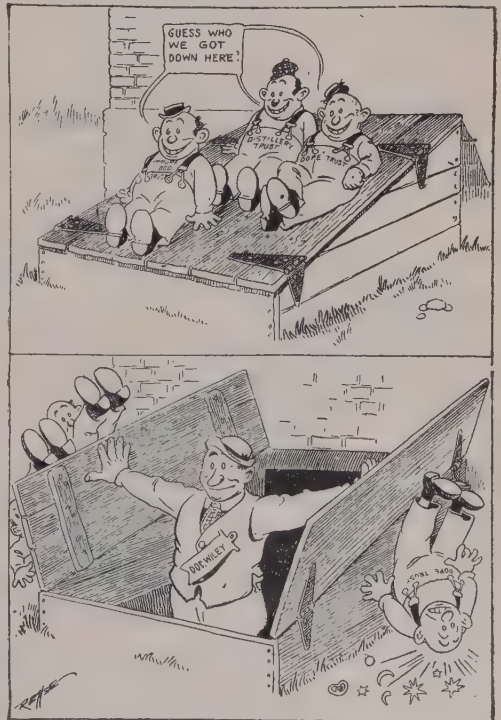
THE ARBITRINITY
From the *National Review* (Shanghai)

The difference in the views of President Taft and ex-President Roosevelt on the arbitration treaties has inspired a number of cartoons, in some of which the Colonel reappears in cowboy costume, "shooting up" the treaties! The two cartoons at the bottom of this page reflect the result of the vote on the liquor question in Maine last month, and President Taft's vindication of Dr. Wiley made public at Beverly on September 15.

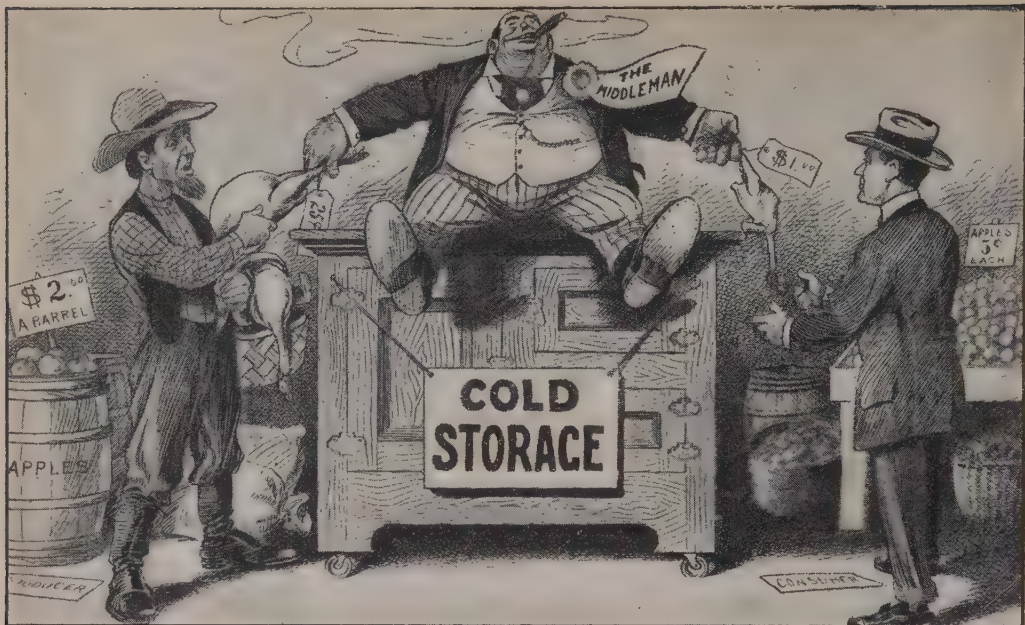
The above cartoon is a graceful tribute paid by the *National Review* of Shanghai to the arbitration treaties between the United States and Great Britain and the United States and France, signed in August, and to be voted on during the early days of the coming regular session of Congress.



"THE PITCHER GOES TO THE WELL"
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



WILEY!
From the *Evening Mail* (New York)

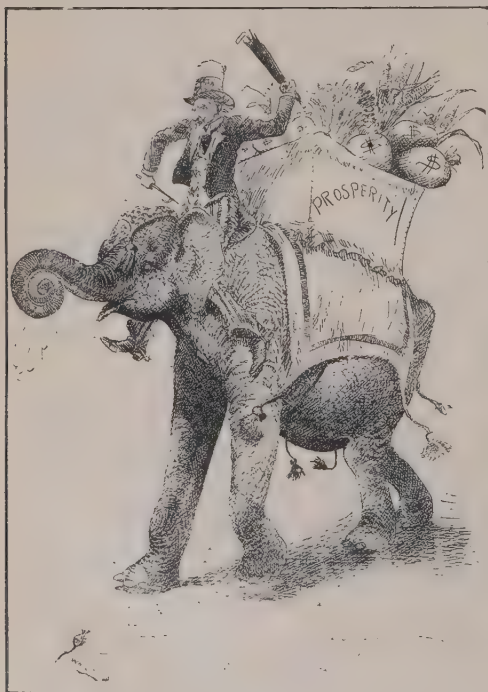


DOES THIS EXPLAIN THE HIGH COST OF LIVING?

Why the consumer has to pay a dollar for that for which the producer receives only twenty-five cents
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)

The responsibility for the great difference between what the producer receives and the consumer pays for food products is being laid at the door of the middleman,—or, more cor-

rectly, middlemen, since, according to a New York judge in a recent chicken case, there are as many as six. Direct trade between producer and consumer is being urged as a solution of this problem of high food prices. The two cartoons below picture the Wall Street mouse frightening the country's prosperity, and the present plight of American railroads.



THE FOLLY OF 1911

From the *Globe and Advertiser* (New York)



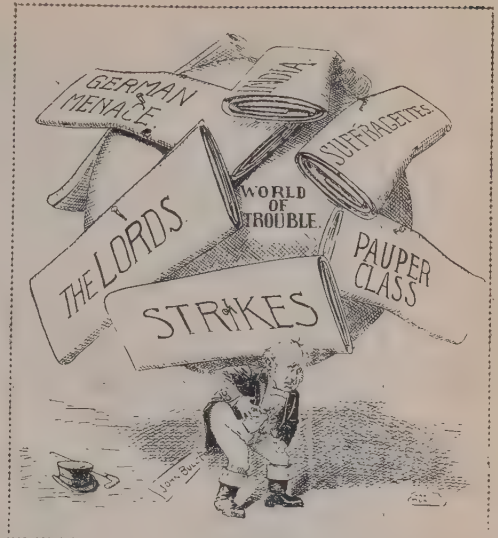
NO WONDER HE FEELS INDISPOSED

From the *Record Herald* (Chicago)

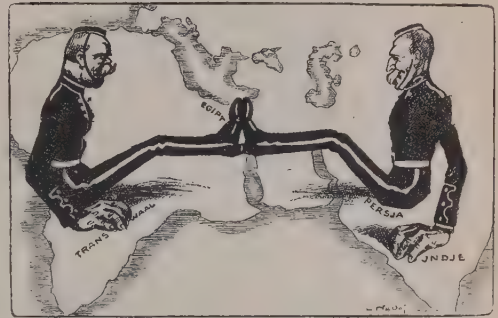


CAPITAL—THE NEW APOSTLE OF PEACE
From the Herald (New York)

The dispute between France and Germany over Morocco and the generally disturbed conditions of labor abroad furnished the themes for the bulk of the cartoons on European topics during the past few weeks. France and Germany making up after their tiff over Morocco, the transportation strike in England, and the international significance of Lord Kitchener's appointment as British pro-consul in Egypt—these are the subjects of the cartoons on this page.



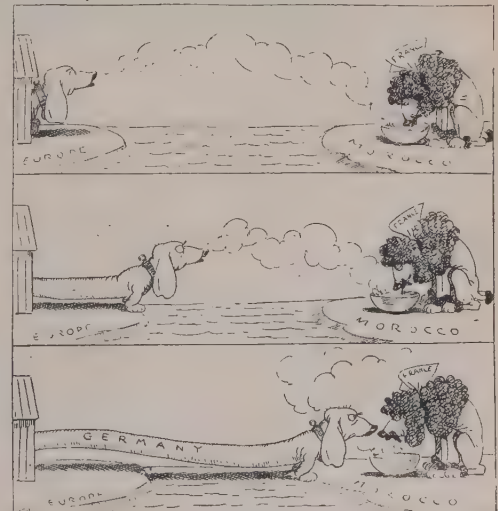
JOHN BULL'S JOB—THE SUN NEVER SETS ON IT
From the Oregonian (Portland)



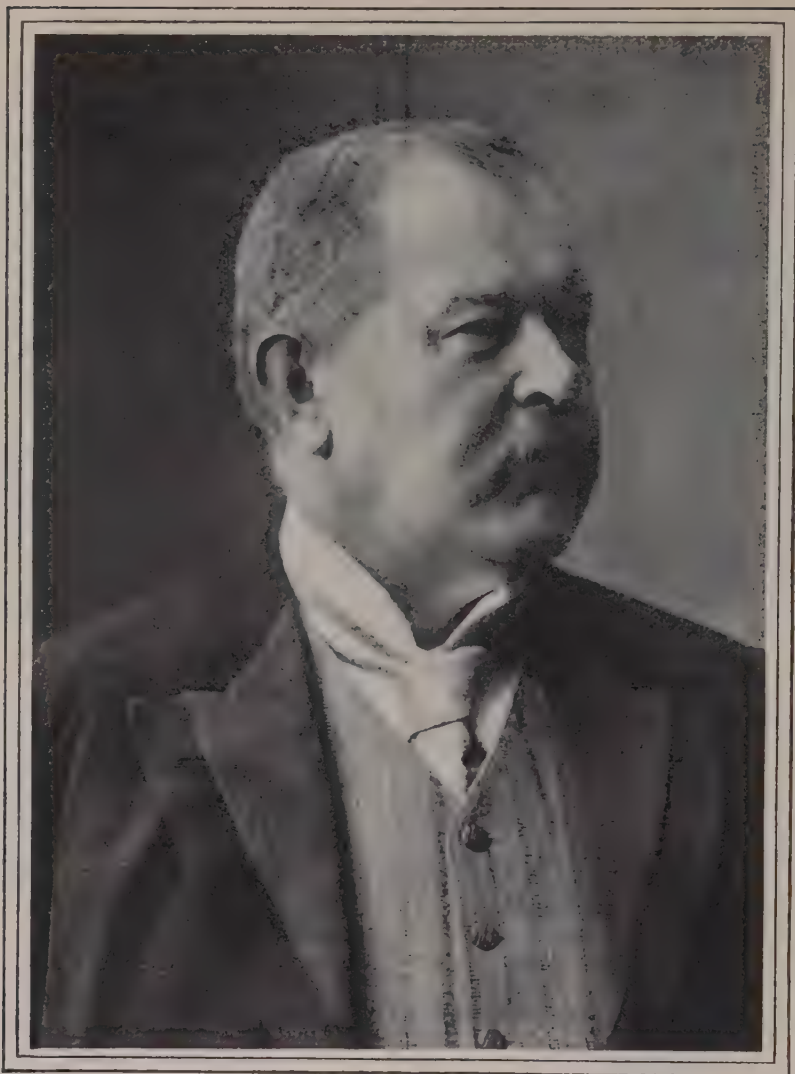
THE BRITISH BRIDGE FROM EGYPT TO INDIA
From Mucha (Warsaw)



FRANCE AND GERMANY—IN ACCORD ON MOROCCO
From the Press (New York)



EXPANSION
From the World (New York)



BARON VON KIDERLEN-WAECHTER

THE moving spirit, indeed the head and front on the German side, in the game of high politics with France over Morocco, has been the pugnacious Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Baron Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter. A typical German diplomat of the modern school, Herr von Kiderlen-Waechter has achieved success as his country's representative at St. Petersburg, Paris, Constantinople, Stockholm, and several of the Balkan capitals. It is largely due to his keen diplomacy and tireless energy that the "Fatherland" now plays such a prominent and profitable part in the economic and commercial development of the Balkans and Turkey. While he was Minister at Bucharest, in the summer of 1910, he succeeded Baron von Schoen as Foreign Minister of the Empire. A man of dominating personality, rather brusque manners, and a pronounced Chauvinistic turn of mind, since his advent at the Wilhelmstrasse to take charge of the empire's dealings with foreign powers, Herr von Kiderlen-Waechter has swung into the center of the stage and quite obscured from the world's view, for a time at least, the more mild-mannered, less assertive Imperial Chancellor. The Foreign Minister, who is now in his fifty-ninth year, is a Bavarian by birth, with fine social instincts.



THÉOPHILE DELCASSÉ

IF Delcassé, who is probably, take it all in all, the most celebrated diplomatist in Europe, is not officially at the helm of foreign affairs in France, it is because this would be an unnecessary offense to Germany. Titles are of minor importance. As Minister of Marine, Delcassé is building up the French navy. He is, at the same time, the backbone and dominating spirit of the Caillaux Ministry, and his hand may be seen in every move made by the less assertive de Selves, who holds the foreign portfolio. It was Delcassé who brought about the cordial understanding between France and Great Britain. It was this same finished, polished, secretive and

tenacious Gallic statesman who precipitated the Moroccan crisis five years ago, and was virtually forced to resign from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to appease German wrath. His consuming passion is to bring about the effective isolation of Germany and eliminate her from the chessboard of European diplomacy. Delcassé is in his fifty-ninth year. He has been a journalist and a professor. His specialty is foreign affairs. He has been Secretary for the Colonies and Colonial Minister. He acted as mediator between the United States and Spain in 1899. He has, in an eminent degree, what the French call the personality of a Premier.



STOLYPIN, RUSSIA'S MAN OF IRON

PETER Arkadyevitch Stolypin, Russia's Premier, the man of iron, who never smiled except when he was hurt, who was assassinated last month, was an orthodox Russian of a peasant-like faith in his country's destiny and the autocratic idea of government. He began life with no social advantages, not even a commission in the army. His ambition was to do for Russia what Bismarck did for the German Empire. He strove to Russify all the diverse races of the empire, and while he always favored legislative projects that would make for Russian prestige abroad and would ameliorate the lot of the peasants, he often fathered severe repressive measures, particularly against the Poles and Jews. In March last, he resigned because his pet project for the extension of the Zemstvo system of local government to all sections of European Russia in which it had not previously prevailed, was rejected by the Council of the Empire. Czar Nicholas, however, persuaded him to remain at his post. Stolypin was a fearless man of sincere convictions, though undoubtedly of the old Russian reactionary type of mind. The fact that the Emperor was not able, during the five years of Stolypin's incumbency, to get a premier to relieve him, would seem to be an indication that with Stolypin out of the way, a new order of things will soon begin in Russia.



BOY SCOUTS OF STAUNTON, VIRGINIA

THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

BY DAN BEARD.

(National Scout Commissioner)

SOME husky men in their shirt sleeves were pitching quoits, when one of the players somehow lost his balance just as he was about to make a pitch. In his struggle to save himself, his body swung round in a half circle, he flung his arms out to balance himself, and the iron ring flew off at a tangent, gyrating through the air, landing in the midst of a merry group of picnickers, who were eating their lunch from a cloth spread on the grass.

There was a shrill scream, and a young woman threw up her hands and fell backward on the sward, with an ugly gash in her head from which the red blood flowed profusely. The other women screamed shrilly too, either out of sympathy or because it was the only thing they knew how to do in such an emergency.

The men joined the crowd and elbowed and jostled one another, stupidly, helplessly, staring at the victim of the accident, at the same time shutting off all fresh air from the now unconscious girl.

No one knew what to do; the accident was unlooked for, unusual, and, hence they were unprepared. A small boy not over twelve years of age in a khaki suit, a modified cowboy's hat, and with a bag like a canvas haversack hanging by a strap over his shoulders,

was attracted by the commotion, and, boy-fashion, wormed his way through the crowd. He was not excited, nor nonplussed; he looked calmly around at the crowd, and, in the even voice of one accustomed to being obeyed, gave the command to "Stand back and give this woman air."

Without question and without realizing their own absurdly ignominious position, the people quietly obeyed, and at a respectful distance watched the small boy stanch the blood, close the gaping lips of the wound, apply the antiseptics, and, with the deftness of an expert surgeon, bind up the head with bandages. He even administered a restorative, and then as the young woman sat up, blinking at the crowd, the boy, a lad of a few words, said, "Now take this woman home." A minute more and the little figure had mingled with the crowd and disappeared.

It was not until it was all over that anyone thought to ask who had so masterfully taken charge of the situation, and efficiently rendered first aid to the injured.

At first there was no answer, and then another lad with the same sort of a campaign hat answered, "Oh, him? Why he's one of the Boy Scouts of America. He belongs to Mr. Sutton's troop. He passed such a bully examination on first aid that the patrol made



BEARING AN INJURED SCOUT ON A LITTER IMPROVISED FROM COATS AND STICKS

him the 'toter' of the first-aid kit. What does B. P. stand for? Oh, that means 'Be Prepared.'" With that the youth saluted and retired to join his friends.

This incident happened in the Keystone State. Similar instances are happening all over the country, for the Boy Scouts are prepared for fun, for work, or for aid to the unfortunate, and for serious study. The Philadelphia Scout proved himself ready for an emergency, but the organization of which he is a member has taught the boys many other things. Here is another example: A troop of Baltimore Scouts were in swimming in the Potomac River. A Tenderfoot, frail of body and unable to swim, got beyond his depth. He yelled for help. Straightway a brother Tenderfoot, who could swim only a few strokes and who happened to be on the shore, took a running dive from a springboard and sank to the bottom directly under the Tenderfoot. Standing under water, he held his companion firm and safe until H. Laurence Eddy, Scout Commissioner of Baltimore, ran up from the camp a short distance away, and with the aid of several Scouts formed a human chain to rescue both boys.

"That's what a Scout always should do," modestly answered the lad who risked

his life for his companion. This incident shows a quick wit, courage, and physical preparedness, but the Scout movement would fail if it did not attain still greater things in boys.

Scouts are not allowed to accept tips or to be paid for any act of kindness or courtesy. An amusing instance of the working of this law among the street gamins recently occurred in New York City. A small Scout stepped up to an old lady and offered to carry her satchel for her. When he reached her front door, she gave him fifteen cents; he tipped his hat and retired. A few minutes afterward the bell rang and the

old lady found the same little Scout on the front-door step. Said he, "Me bruder says to me, says he, 'You're a bum Scout to take money from an old woman for carrying her satchel.' Here's your money, mum. I'm sorry I took it."

LEARNING BY DOING

Such incidents are typical of the spirit which the Boy Scout movement seeks to arouse in the boys. Its threefold aim, of strengthening the body, training the mind, and building up the character, is based upon the practical idea of leading a boy to be thorough, honorable, and alert in his play and to



THE "FIREMEN'S LIFT" AS PRACTISED BY BOY SCOUTS OF ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA



"RESUSCITATING THE DROWNING" (PHILADELPHIA BOY SCOUTS)

be thoughtful of others. It shows him how to gain skill in play by learning many useful things. It relies on the psychological fact that the boy, with his irresistible curiosity, turns in fun to inquire into many things that have a practical and educational value. The Scout movement leads him on and rewards him for his thorough investigation of any such field. This movement is upsetting and revolutionizing the modern modes of education. It has emphatically proved that our boys can and will *voluntarily learn how to do things* that a decade ago few would have thought possible to teach them. Scout Commissioner Sutton told me that when they asked the surgeons to talk to the Scouts on the first aid to the injured, the medical men laughed at the idea. Yet when they did give talks, the boys proved to be such apt pupils that some of them rival the professional gentlemen themselves in the skill they display.

WHAT IT MEANS TO BE A SCOUT

The Scout activities appeal to the boys because they include innumerable things which their heroes of fiction and history have done. In place of trying to force the boys to conform to the artificial ideas and stand-

ards of the adults, evolved by adults who lead artificial lives, *we go to the boys themselves*, find out the real things which interest them, the fundamental causes for their activities, the kind of men that make heroes for them, and then we endeavor to show them how they can derive entertainment in natural boyish ways; how they can emulate the remarkable virtues of such real boy's heroes as the picturesque groups of remarkable persons developed by our frontier, whom we call the Buckskin Knights—such men as Jonathan Chapman (Applesseed Johnny), a follower of Emanuel Swedenborg's teachings; the daredevil Simon Kenton, a devout Methodist; the greatest scout that ever lived, Daniel Boone, of Quaker ancestors, whose whole life was influenced by the precepts of the Friends; the great pathfinder, Marquette, a priest of the Roman Catholic Church; Abraham Lincoln, a product of the frontier; George Washington, the foundation of whose remarkable character was built in the wilderness among the Buckskin men. These are real, genuine heroes, whose virtues our boys may safely copy.

The boys by becoming Scouts have an opportunity to learn woodcraft, gain knowledge of birds and trees, learn the secrets of the woods, to swim, paddle a canoe and do many



CAMP ACTIVITIES

other things boys love to do. At all times they have over them a Scoutmaster, whose credentials have been approved and who is really their physical, mental, and character trainer. He watches over them and guides them in their play and their various activities, trains them in alertness, self-reliance, and other Scout virtues. His aim is to turn out useful, self-reliant, alert, honest citizens.

The idea of Scoutcraft appeals strongly to our youth. It is not a religious movement, although all religions endorse it, for we take the middle road and go no farther than the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of

man. It is not a military movement, for militarism is conspicuous by its absence; it is not nature study, for there are hundreds of societies devoted entirely to that subject which are unknown to fame; it is not athletic, for there are thousands of unknown athletic associations; it is not woodcraft. It is all these things and more put in a way that strikes the boys as manly and helpful. In this work we do not aim to win the boys from any religious associations, or wholesome or healthful organizations. Our object is to supplement and help existing educational agencies, such as the church, school, boys' clubs, Sunday School, Young Men's Catholic Associations, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Men's Christian Associations and Social Settlement.

"BE PREPARED"

While a boy is having fun engaging in Scouting, he must keep in mind the Scout motto, vow, and law. These three things indicate clearly the ideals of the organizations.

The motto is "Be Prepared." It was originated by Lieutenant-General Sir Robert

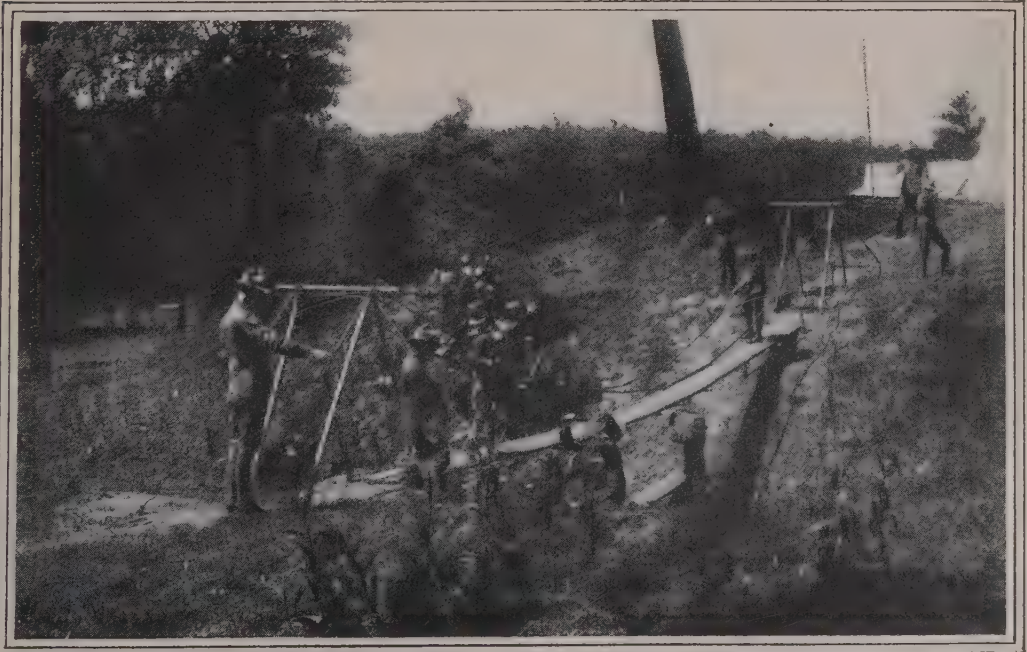


THEY CAN BUILD THEIR FIRES WITH ONE MATCH, OR WITH NO MATCH AT ALL



BOY SCOUTS OF COLUMBUS, OHIO, LEARNING HOW TO MAKE MAPS

S. S. Baden-Powell, K. C. B., and adopted by the Boy Scouts of America. It has become International, being used by the Scouts of all other nations. The Scout "Oath" or promise says: "On my honor I will do my best—1 To do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the Scout Law; 2. To help other people at all times; 3. To keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight." The Scout Law has twelve planks, and if a boy obeys them he will be an excellent Scout. The points are—1. A Scout is trust-



A LESSON IN BRIDGE-BUILDING

worthy. 2. A Scout is loyal. 3. A Scout is helpful. 4. A Scout is friendly. 5. A Scout is courteous. 6. A Scout is kind. 7. A Scout is obedient. 8. A Scout is cheerful. 9. A Scout is thrifty. 10. A Scout is brave. 11. A Scout is clean. 12. A Scout is reverent.

ORGANIZATION

Here then you have the ideals and activities of the Scout movement. If a boy reading about them desires to become a Scout, he may write to the Boy Scouts of America for a pamphlet explaining the organization of a patrol. A Scout must be at least twelve years old. He is urged to gather seven boys together, there being eight in a patrol, elect a patrol leader and then get a man twenty-one years old to serve as Scoutmaster. Such a man must be interested in boys and sympathetic, with ability to lead and to command the boys' respect. Once the Scoutmaster has obtained his certificate he is ready to have the boys pass the first test to become a Tenderfoot.

There are three classes of Scouts, namely—Tenderfoot, second class, and first class. To become a Tenderfoot a boy must be at least twelve years old, and must pass simple requirements, such as knowing the Scout oath, law, sign, and salute; the composition and history of the American flag; and be able to tie four kinds of knots.

He may become a second-class Scout after a month's service as a Tenderfoot, provided he can track half a mile in twenty-five min-

utes; run a mile in twelve minutes at Scout's pace; give satisfactory evidence of an elementary knowledge of first aid and bandaging also of signaling by the Semaphore, Morse or Meyer alphabet. He must be able to use a knife or hatchet, cook in the open, know the sixteen principal points of the compass, and have earned and deposited at least one dollar in a public bank.

The requirements to become a first-class Scout are considerably more arduous. The Scout must be equal to a fifty-yard swim and fourteen mile hike; have advanced knowledge of first aid and signaling; be able to make and read correctly road maps; be a good judge of distances, heights, weights; give proof of trained powers of observation in animal and plant life; enlist a Tenderfoot he himself has trained and have earned and deposited in a public bank at least two dollars.

After a boy becomes a first-class Scout, he is then in line for further proficiency in Scouting, through what is known as Merit Badges. These badges are awarded by a Court of Honor.

Scouts are formed into patrols composed of eight boys each, and three patrols constitute a troop.

To do good scouting a boy must understand the organization of which he is a part. The Boy Scouts of America is promoted and governed by a group of men called the National Council. This National Council is made up of leading men of the country and it is the council's desire that every American boy shall



SCOUTS' SALUTE BY INDIAN BOY SCOUTS OF MINNESOTA



UTICA, NEW YORK, BOY SCOUTS OFF FOR AN OUTING

have the opportunity of becoming a good Scout.

The National Council holds one meeting annually at which it elects the officers and the members of the Executive Board. It copyrights badges and other Scout designs, arranges for their Scout equipment, issues Scout Commissioners' and Scoutmasters' certificates, and grants charters for local councils.

A local council through its officers—president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and Scout Commissioners, its executive committee, court of honor and other committees—deals with all the local matters that relate to scouting.

The Scout Commissioner is the ranking Scoutmaster of the local council and presides at all Scoutmasters' meetings as well as at all Scout field meets. It is also the duty of the local Scout Commissioner to report to and advise with the Chief Scout through the Executive Secretary concerning the Scouts in his district. The Scout Commissioner's certificate is issued from National Headquarters upon the recommendation of a local council after this council has been granted a charter.

The power of the National Council is not assumed without authority. In February, 1910, at New York, there was a meeting of the representatives of a large number of societies interested in the work for boys, and at this meeting the National Council, Executive Board and officers were duly elected, and invested with the proper authority to act.

The prominent men interested in this movement represent all shades of political and religious beliefs. There are peace men, sitting elbow to elbow with famous war heroes, but whatever their individual faiths may be all these men are honestly, sincerely and deeply interested in the welfare of the American boy. They are fully aware of the fact that all boys are naturally democrats, hence it is that rich or poor, Catholic, Protestant, Jew or Gentile, Republican, Democrat, Insurgent, or Socialist, they are all proud to be called Scouts.

THE SCOUT TRAINING

The activities of the boys are as varied as the fancies of the lads. They turn at times



BOY SCOUTS ARE EXPERT AT WIGWAGGING
(These boys are signaling across the water)

boys on the grounds at one time and that they kept perfect order you can form an idea of the remarkable influence of the Scout training. These boys came from all walks in life, a large contingent being from the tenement district of New York City. They camped on the grounds and cooked their own meals and the report of the treasurer of the Association shows that they did not cost it one cent.

SCOUTS AT COOPERSTOWN

It is no wonder that this society of boys should excite great enthusiasm at Cooperstown, where every rock and hill is closely

to tests of a boy's courage and of his game-ness. Formerly, if a Scout used a vulgar expression the culprit allowed the other Scouts to pour a cup of cold water down his sleeve, and smiled while it was being done. This custom was inaugurated by the famous old Scout, Captain John Smith, but is not now practised by the Scouts.

Scouts are encouraged to earn their own money. We do not pauperize them and sap their growing manhood by furnishing them uniforms or equipments, nor do we require them to possess these things. If they wish them, be they rich or poor, they must earn the money with which to outfit themselves.

VARIOUS THINGS THAT SCOUTS DO

In the West I have reports of a patrol of Scouts which does efficient work as a regular organized hose company in the volunteer fire department. In the various parts of the country, as at Utica, N. Y., and Louisville, Ky., they publish their own newspapers or magazines. They build their own wireless telegraphs and use them; they know the signs of the woods and the road signs; they can even read the signs of the tramps and yeggmen. In Louisville they have an organization of blind Scouts.

At the great amateur circus given at Flushing, L. I., the Boy Scouts did most efficient work in policing the grounds, helping the workmen, and assisting the managers of this show, and when one considers the fact that there were several hundred of our

associated with Fenimore Cooper, the American apostle of the buckskin scouts, who sang the praises of

"The simple things, the true things,
The silent men who do things."

Most of Cooper's fame comes from his "Leatherstocking" stories, and his delightful description of the old knights of the long rifles and the long knives. And it is the lives, deeds, and achievements of these empire builders which suggested the use of the word Scout for our boys. This makes it most appropriate for Cooperstown to open wide its arms, as it did, to the Scouts, and with true pioneer hospitality issue the invitation to all the Boy Scouts of America.



SCOUTS CAN COOK THEIR OWN MEALS IN THE MOST
APPROVED CAMP FASHION
(“Spuds” for breakfast)



TROOPS MESS AT COOPERSTOWN ENCAMPMENT

The boys came and saw and conquered Cooperstown, as they had conquered Colonel Roosevelt, who was the first prominent man to interest himself in them, and is now most appropriately their honorary Vice-President; President Taft, who is their honorary President; the boys' friend, Judge Lindsey, who declares that the Boy Scout movement is one of peculiar importance to the whole country; Lyman Beecher Stowe, who says: "The Scout is, in a word, to become a Man Scout in the army of the common good;" Dr. Wm. T. Hornaday, the famous naturalist and protector of our animal and plant life, who has written the Scouts a long letter, appealing to them to help him in the great task of conservation.

AN AMERICAN INSTITUTION

The writer told the Boy Scouts, back in 1905, when the society was new, that the biggest men of the country would soon be proud to link their names with those of the Boy Scouts, and the truth of this prophecy can now be seen by looking through lists of officers and directors of the Boy Scouts of America. And best of all America, in originating the scout idea, has given the boys of the world something real, sane and worthy to make their lives livable.

In Philadelphia a troop of Scouts has been formed out of the most troublesome gang of boys in the Quaker City, and a prominent police official recently told the writer that the policemen in that quarter still think that

they must be dreaming, for the same boys who were wont to pester and make the lives of the blue-coats miserable, now assist them. Order and quiet prevail where once was noise, mischief and confusion. A glance at the new Scout's Manual will show how varied and useful are the occupations, aims and ambitions of the Scouts.

Scouting is typically and intensely American. It is safe to say that no full-grown man can appreciate the real meaning to the youth of the United States of the word Scout, unless that person is in full sympathy with American institutions, tradition and history, and familiar with the potential power, manly self-respect, personal integrity and personal dignity only to be realized under a Republican form of government, the only form of government that has no tendencies to make menials of its citizens.

It is the American spirit of conscious individuality and initiative in the weave and woof of the Boy Scout idea, which gives to it its vim, life and vitality. But its popularity among the boys and primary cause, which has made it sweep this country with a rapidity of a forest fire, lies in the name "Scout." The mystic charm, the magic talisman, which caused the President of the United States in 1907 to keep busy statesmen waiting in the cabinet chamber while he carefully read the prospectus of the Boy Scouts, lies in its name.

It was the name which fixed his attention, but it was the object which gained his endorsement. It was the name which caught



BOY SCOUTS OF PORTO RICO

the attention of the famous English gentleman, Baden-Powell, in 1908. His experience with boys as messengers during the Boer War had so impressed him with their ability to do things, that he "cribbed" the Scout idea, as he himself declares, and determined to devote the rest of his life to developing it in England. To the activities of the boys' organizations which he found in different countries, Baden-Powell added to his organizations others with the aim of developing the boys' mind and character.

The charm, the magic, the fascination is all in the word Scout and what it means to a boy. No wonder Scouts are proud of the title, for even to see the word in print, or hear it pronounced, opens up to their youthful minds a land teeming with picturesqueness, more crammed with real thrilling adventures, more permeated with true chivalry and heroic valor than the combined efforts of the fertile imagination of Sir Walter Scott and the poetic fancy of Lord Tennyson were ever able to paste, hitch, or hang on to the boiler-shop shirts, the stove-pipe sleeves and ironpot hats worn by our comical, hifalutin', savage, medieval ancestors.

In laying particular stress upon the particular fact that the Boy Scout idea was born in America, of American parentage, I do not wish in the least to detract from the great and very important work done in develop-

ing and popularizing the movement by Baden-Powell, to whom the whole world is indebted for his unselfish work and the genius he displayed in organizing the vast army of Scouts in England. Neither do I wish in the least to detract from, or minimize the work done by that other loyal and talented recruit, Mr. Ernest Thompson-Seton, who with his band of youthful Indians joined our forces in 1910 and is one of the founders of the present National organization, which is an up-to-date amplification and evolution of the original idea, and is indebted to many people and many

minds for its present recognized excellence. The English people are too far removed from their own pioneer ancestors to make natural Scouts, but not too far to appreciate them.

The Boy Scouts have nothing to do with war, and their Scoutcraft has no more connection with it than has the hunter's knowledge of woodcraft and the lone trapper's ability to take care of himself under all and any conditions. War with the old Scouts was not of their own seeking, but incidental to the life they led. War with the Boy Scouts is not talked of, prepared for, or considered in their training; the whole aim of the society is to make them clear-eyed, clean-limbed, clear-minded, efficient, manly boys and ultimately good citizens.



CLARKSVILLE, TENNESSEE, TROOP I

ECONOMY OF THE MOTOR WAGON

BY WALTER WARDROP

(Editor of the *Power Wagon*)

THE commercial status of the motor wagon in this country is not very accurately defined by stating that 20,000 machines—worth \$50,000,000—are at present employed in the service of about 8000 business firms. The figures are enlightening, but they are rather more expressive of the vogue of mechanical road haulage than suggestive of its economy.

To ascertain the real economic value of motors in merchandise delivery, one must critically inspect the installations of such establishments as use them in quantity. Such an examination will at once disclose how much dependence can be placed in the work performance of the machines, and how liberally it is being supported by individual investment. Selecting seventeen important installations, it is found that they represent 1562 machines costing \$3,345,000.



ELECTRIC BAGGAGE WAGON IN THE SERVICE OF THE WHITE HOUSE AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

New Haven, and Indianapolis, the Buffalo service having been on an all-motor basis for five years past.

The largest all-motor service in the country is that of Gimbel Bros., of New York City. This firm undoubtedly was much aided in deciding to make exclusive use of motor wagons by the absence of investment in draft animals at the time of its establishment. The firm knew what it cost to deliver merchandise by horses from its other stores in Philadelphia and Milwaukee, and for an assumed volume of business from its New York store it was calculated that an annual expenditure of \$280,000 would be required if delivery was undertaken by draft animals. The firm satisfied itself that the same service could be rendered by motors at an annual expenditure of \$149,000—a saving of 46 per cent. The machines, electric and gasoline, are operated from a centrally located station, and five sub-stations in the suburbs.

Progress in motor-wagon application is most apparent wherever the waste of horse transportation is most obvious. Hence it was inevitable that the large cities should be the theaters in which mechanical haulage would be first and most extensively demonstrated. But, though this is precisely what has happened, one is not justified in concluding that the country at large has overlooked the conspicuous economy of motor wagons. The truth is, the employment of machines of

Proprietors	Number of Machines	Investment
Adams Express Co.	400	\$800,000
Ward-Corby Co. (Bakers) ..	350	700,000
American Express Co.	100	250,000
Gimbel Bros. (Department Store) ..	96	240,000
Anheuser-Busch Brewing Co.	85	255,000
John Wanamaker (Department Store) ..	75	150,000
New York Edison Co. (Public Lighting) ..	70	175,000
Marshall Field & Co. (Department Store) ..	56	180,000
Jacob Ruppert Brewing Co.	50	150,000
United States Express Co.	50	150,000
R. H. Macy & Co. (Department Store) ..	45	90,000
J. L. Kessner & Co. (Department Store) ..	43	100,000
Piercy & Co. (Package Delivery) ..	37	95,000
New York Telephone Co.	35	90,000
Jas. A. Hearn & Son (Dry Goods) ..	28	70,000
Tiffany & Company (Jewelers) ..	21	52,500
Commonwealth Edison Co. (Public Lighting) ..	21	52,500
Total	1562	\$3,345,000

A large number of concerns whose motor-wagon holdings entitle them to representation in the foregoing table are omitted, as lengthening of the list would not greatly strengthen the conclusion which is formed upon examination of it, namely, that business houses which do not slight their transportation are not the least bit timid about motor-wagon investment.

It will not have escaped attention that in the foregoing table of investment there are listed many concerns which are compelled to live exclusively out of transportation, and that they are among the principal owners of mechanical equipment. It is even more interesting to learn that one of these, the Adams Express Company, relies exclusively upon the service of machines in Buffalo, Rochester,

all ratings is quite general. But the buying capacity of the large cities is at the moment so great that producers cannot very conveniently cultivate the smaller markets. The following table of distribution would seem to prove that the economy of the machines is as much in evidence in one part of the country as in another:

	Number of Machines in Use	Value
New York City	2500	\$6,250,000
Chicago	1200	3,000,000
Boston	700	1,750,000
Philadelphia	700	1,750,000
Pittsburgh	300	750,000
Detroit	400	1,000,000
St. Louis	300	750,000
Kansas City	160	400,000
Buffalo	150	375,000
Indianapolis	150	375,000
Cleveland	150	375,000
Cincinnati	100	250,000
Denver	100	250,000
Portland, Ore.	300	750,000
San Francisco	200	500,000
Minneapolis	100	250,000
Los Angeles	70	175,000
Seattle	80	200,000
St. Paul	100	250,000

While it is true the economy of motor-wagon transportation increases with the magnitude of the installation, it yet remains as consolation for the small merchant that the employment of a few machines can be profitably undertaken wherever their service is indicated. Here it is well to remark that one

motor wagon is not an economical substitute for one horse-drawn vehicle unless it can be demonstrated that the machine is to be actively worked to its range and load capacity. Draft-animal equipment is relatively cheap, while motor-wagon equipment is relatively dear. Hence it is only when the work assigned to several units of the former can be absorbed by one of the latter that the higher first cost and installation of the machine are justified.

It would be arrant folly to pretend that the harsh service conditions so often found in rural delivery are as advantageous for the motor wagon as the more favorable conditions which prevail in large cities and their suburbs. The machine must have roadways fit for its travel. It can be driven hub-deep in mud, or through frozen ruts, but not economically. Within the area of the average small town, however, its service is shown to be distinctly profitable in thousands of instances, and there is good reason for believing that as country road conditions are improved it will play a very important part in the development of inter-city transportation.

A few years ago it was with extreme difficulty that anyone could be persuaded to regard motor-wagon operation as anything but an experimental undertaking. Almost every concern considered itself a pioneer in the work, notwithstanding the fact that thousands of machines had long been economically



ECONOMICAL METHOD OF LOADING A THREE-TON GASOLINE TRUCK EMPLOYED BY THE WANAMAKER ESTABLISHMENT

(Duplicate "nesting" bodies are loaded at the store while the machine is on the road, thus avoiding waste of machine's capacity for work)



A THREE-TON TRUCK WAGON WHICH CARRIES A DEPARTMENT STORE'S BOXED MERCHANDISE TO OUTLYING STATIONS FOR SUBSEQUENT DELIVERY BY LIGHT MOTORS

applied in service. The situation is different to-day. Orders are now being placed in the confident assurance that if the machines are treated with the consideration they deserve, and no error of judgment is made in their application, they will earn handsomely upon the investment. Orders for five and ten machines are quite common, while the purchase of twenty-five and fifty is recorded with gratifying frequency. It has taken time to break down the reserve and prejudice with which the power wagon was at first confronted.

Considering how strong is the inclination to keep competitors in the dark concerning business practices which temporarily furnish a profitable monopoly, it is really remarkable that any trustworthy evidence should be available for confirming the economy of the motor wagon on a large scale. Naturally, therefore, records of successful operation are obtained with great difficulty. One of the large express companies operating machines in New York recently struck a balance between the two forms of transportation which it employs, and found that for the period of a year the machines had effected a saving of \$35,771.93—an economy of 23 per cent. This concern employed forty electric wagons in work to which it had previously assigned fifty-three horse-drawn wagons. The cost of horse transportation in this instance was \$149,674.05, while the cost of motor-wagon operation was only \$113,902.12. These fig-

ures hardly represent the full measure of saving effected by the machines, since they not only absorbed the work of the horses which they superseded, but created traffic for themselves and considerably enlarged the profitable area of delivery.

So much importance is attached to the motor-wagon delivery service of R. H. Macy & Co., of New York, that its administration is the special concern of one of the members of the big dry-goods firm. It has been officially declared that the delivery of the company's packages, all charges included, costs 6½ cents apiece. The cost of delivery per package by horses is 8½ cents. The company's three-ton machines are operated at a cost of 29¼ cents per vehicle mile. Electrics are chiefly employed in this establishment, which has been realizing the economy of motor-wagon transportation since 1903. The company's machines cover about 250,000 miles annually. When it was operating thirty machines the annual mileage amounted to 226,618 and the total operating cost was \$22,913.49.

The efficiency of the motor-wagon equipment in the Anheuser-Busch Brewing Company's service in St. Louis is well known to transportation experts. The installation consists of 85 machines, sixty electrics and twenty-five gasoline trucks. It appears from the books of the company that during the course of one of the severest winter months twenty-eight machines did not lose a single



A TRACKLESS TROLLEY VEHICLE

(Power is taken from the overhead line when running on or close by rails, and from its own battery when running wide of the track)

minute's service for any reason whatsoever; that sixteen missed but one day apiece on account of their drivers not reporting for duty, and that four lost from one-half to a full day on account of abstraction from service for repairs. It is doubtful if any motor-wagon installation in the country can boast a more brilliant record of service, than this, unless possibly it be one of the all-motor stations of the Adams Express Company, which are also known to be operated with marked administrative skill.

Ten ten-ton machines have been applied in coal-carrying service by Burns Bros., of New York. The owners find that the machines can deliver coal, mechanically loaded, at 20 cents per ton as against 40 cents per ton when draft animals are employed. The maximum road speed of the machines is eight miles an hour. Since it can be shown that it is well within the capacity of a ten-ton coal truck to haul eighty-four tons daily, averaging thirty-five miles, at one-half the cost necessary for moving the same load an equal distance by horses, it must be admitted that the future of draft-animal transportation in certain forms of business is exceedingly dark. One Burns machine has hauled 2184 tons a month, or over 26,000 tons a year, at a maximum cost of \$16 a day. It will be noted from its record of performance, here submitted, that the

haul was short, while the hours of service were very actively employed:

Average miles per day	35.4
Average gallons fuel per day	11.9
Average miles per gallon	2.97
Average number of loads per day	8.3
Average tons per day	84.03
Total tonnage in 13 days	1,092.39
Cost per day, maximum	\$16.00
Cost per ton	\$ 0.19
Average miles from base	2.13
Weight of truck empty	13,000 pounds
Total weight	33,250 pounds
Average rolling load	23,125 pounds
Average ton miles per gallon of fuel	34.43

Quite recently the superintendent of delivery in the Chicago Public Library was asked by the directors of that institution how much longer his six gasoline wagons of 2000-pound load capacity would last in sub-station distribution service. He replied: "As long as I wish." He meant that with intelligent care in operation, and adequate repair attention, the life of the machines might be prolonged indefinitely. The delivery service of the Library is on an all-motor basis. The first machine was installed in the fall of 1904. Each machine covers forty-one miles daily. Drivers are paid \$15 a week. Authentic service costs for a year are as follows:

Drivers' wages	\$4,500.00
Parts replacement	1,304.02
Gasoline	939.23
Tires	968.97
Oil and grease	450.15
Waste	52.44
Machine work	117.61
Batteries	35.62
Supplies	210.78
Painting	199.00
Washing	600.00
Interest on investment at 6%	1,080.00
Insurance	90.00
Storage	800.00
Total	\$11,346.62

It will be observed that in the foregoing table there is no provision made for depreciation charge or rent. The superintendent of delivery states that the machines have earned their cost long ago. There is no charge made for rental, as the garage is established in the library building.

Not long ago the transportation manager of a well-known New York wholesale house offered the following comparison of horse- and electric-wagon service in his establishment:

	ONE TON		TWO TON		THREE AND ONE-HALF TON	
	Horse	Electric	Horse	Electric	Horse	Electric
Miles per day	17	35	16	30	15	27
Ton miles per day	17	35	32	60	52	94
Cost per day	\$7.13	\$6.89	\$8.37	\$7.99	\$8.41	\$9.57
Cost per mile	.419	.20	.523	.27	.56	.35
Cost per ton mile	.419	.20	.261	.135	.162	.10

In heavy work draft animals practically cease to offer competition to or comparison with motor wagons, once the journeys exceed eleven miles from the base of operations. That distance, which seems to mark the limit of profitable haulage for horses in the heavier class of work, only enables us to observe the shadow of motor-wagon economy. Long hauls are necessary for the establishment of the substantial value of the machine. In such work, within limitations, it has no rival. It is often superior even to the railroad. But it is worth while noting that even within the field where both horses and motor wagons may be employed, the latter outclass the former whenever the loads are high. The economy of the machines, evident from the very first, gradually increases until at eleven miles or there-

abouts there is no competing form of service with which it may be contrasted. If there is considerable activity of performance the balance in favor of mechanical transport is found to be all the greater.

Edward R. Hewitt,

of New York, has faithfully watched the performance of two, three-, five-, and ten-ton gasoline trucks in work where in the cost of draft-animal service is accurately known. In the table shown on the next page he records the results of these observations. As the figures in the table are computed upon the basis of one-way haulage, it is plain that they do not do full justice to the motor wagon, nor accurately reveal the inefficiency of the horse. Were horses worked hauling full loads both ways, it would be necessary to depreciate greatly the values assigned



TRUCK USED FOR SAFE-MOVING

(A power winch replaces the former hand winches for hoisting)

to them in the table. On the other hand, were the machines employed at full capacity the cost of transportation as shown would be much reduced. Active work, which destroys the usefulness of the draft animal, raises our esteem for the motor wagon.

ized by the necessity of having the stable so located as to accommodate the physical limitations of the animals.

In concerns which rely exclusively upon motor wagons the administration of necessity becomes highly organized and road and

COMPARATIVE HORSE AND MOTOR TRUCK COSTS

		1-Horse Wagon 1 Ton		2-Horse Wagon 4 Tons		3-Horse Wagon 6 Tons		Motor Truck 2 Tons		Motor Truck 3 Tons		Motor Truck 5 Tons		Motor Truck 10 Tons	
Average Miles per hour		4		3		2½		12		10		8		6	
Cost per Day		\$4.00		\$6.00		\$8.00		\$9.60		\$10.38		\$12.67		\$15.63	
Miles from Base	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Ton	Per Load	Per Ton
1	\$.39	\$.39	\$.60	\$.15	\$.88	\$.146	\$.38	\$.19	\$.48	\$.16	\$.61	\$.125	\$1.02	\$.108	
2	.78	.78	1.20	.30	1.76	.29	.76	.38	.96	.32	1.22	.25	2.04	.216	
3	1.17	1.17	1.80	.45	2.64	.43	1.14	.57	1.44	.48	1.83	.37	3.06	.324	
4	1.56	1.56	2.40	.60	3.52	.58	1.52	.76	1.92	.64	2.44	.50	4.08	.432	
5	1.95	1.95	3.00	.75	4.40	.74	1.90	.95	2.40	.80	3.05	.62	5.10	.540	
6	2.34	2.34	3.60	.90	5.28	.87	2.28	1.14	2.88	.96	3.66	.75	6.12	.648	
7	2.73	2.73	4.20	1.05	6.16	1.02	2.66	1.33	3.36	1.12	4.27	.87	7.14	.756	
8	3.12	3.12	4.80	1.20	7.04	1.16	3.04	1.57	3.84	1.28	4.88	1.00	8.16	.864	
9	3.51	3.51	5.40	1.35	7.92	1.31	3.42	1.71	4.32	1.44	5.49	1.15	9.18	.972	
10	3.90	3.90	6.00	1.50			3.80	1.90	4.80	1.60	6.10	1.25	10.20	1.08	
11	4.29	4.29					4.18	2.09	5.28	1.76	6.71	1.31	11.22	1.18	
12							4.56	2.28	5.76	1.92	7.32	1.50	12.24	1.29	
13							4.94	2.47	6.24	2.08	7.93	1.62	13.26	1.40	
14							5.32	2.66	6.72	2.24	8.54	1.75	14.28	1.51	
15							5.70	2.85	7.20	2.40	9.15	1.87	15.30	1.62	
16							6.08	3.04	7.68	2.56	9.76	2.00			
17							6.46	3.23	8.16	2.72	10.37	2.15			
18							6.84	3.42	8.64	2.88	10.98	2.25			
19							7.22	3.61	9.12	3.04	11.59	2.37			
20							7.60	3.80	9.60	3.20	12.20	2.50			
21							7.98	3.99	10.08	3.36					
22							8.36	4.18	10.56	3.52					
23							8.74	4.37							
24							9.12	4.56							
25							9.50	4.75							

Limit of profitable
horse haulage per day

The installation of a few motor wagons in a large horse stable very imperfectly denotes the saving which might be accomplished if all of the firm's transportation was accomplished by motors. The difficulty of separating the horse- and power-wagon accounts in establishments where the administration is none too highly organized is sure to react to the disadvantage of the machine. Alongside of this, there is the obscuration of gains which would be sure to result if the two forms of equipment were not in interference with each other. For example, the reduction in fixed stable charges through the substitution of power wagons on any considerable scale is enormous. One of the principal express companies in the country once requested estimates for the construction of buildings for the independent housing of power wagons and draft-animal equipment. When the estimates were presented it was found that the building necessary for the storage of the machines would cost \$20,000, while the structure for the other form of equipment was figured at \$80,000. An economy such as this would hardly be suspected by the average business establishment contemplating an experiment in transportation with one or two machines. The stabling of horses and motor wagons in the same building is further penal-

stable troubles, which, when only a few machines are employed, are much magnified, become fewer and less conspicuous as the operating system is more highly developed. Both operating and fixed expenses of every kind are reduced in proportion as the number of machines increases. The service, too, shows a corresponding improvement, the result of increased all-around expertness.

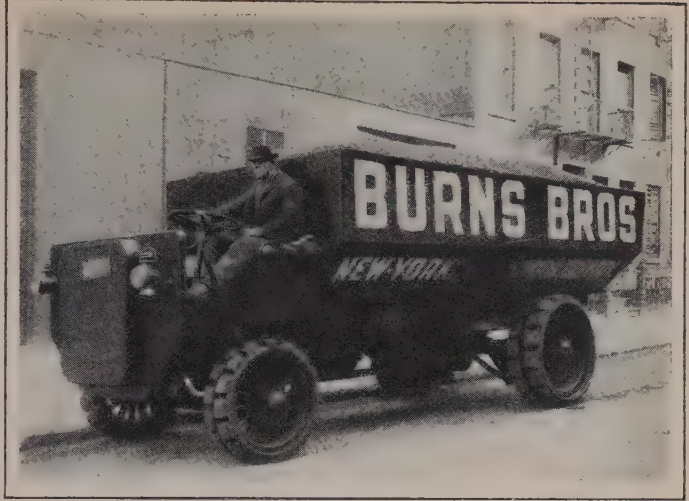
Estimates which forecast the money to be saved by the wholesale conversion of transportation equipment from horse to motor are not often submitted to any but the largest mercantile houses. Their preparation requires the services of highly paid investigators, the expenditure of much time, thought, and money, and a thorough analysis of the haulage conditions of the business. Such labors are most fruitful when it is manifest that an earnest desire exists to employ machines and only the type and rating remain to be determined. It would obviously be a waste of effort to apply such costly and painstaking methods to ascertain the economy of motor wagons in the service of small establishments whose teaming operations present no uncommon characteristics, and therefore can be absorbed at a glance.

A typical example of the economy of an all-motor installation was recently furnished

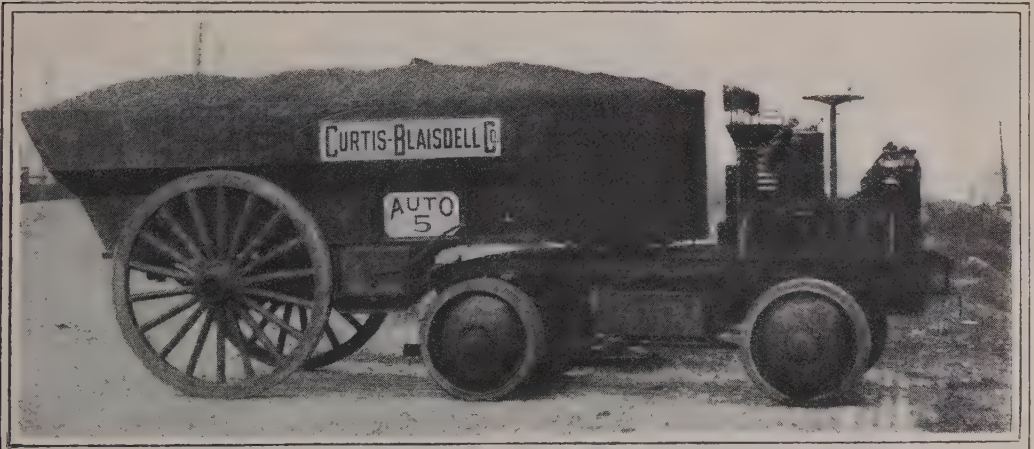
to a large packing house whose transportation service was exhaustively analyzed by experts. In the report which they presented, it was shown that by discarding horses an annual saving of \$23,569 could be effected. This meant a 17½-per cent. reduction of transportation expense. To gain so much, however, it was necessary to sell the horse equipment, which was inventoried at \$78,154, and invest \$88,579 more. If this were done it was demonstrated that the additional investment could be refunded in three and three-fourths years, which is equal to saying that this additional investment would bring an annual return of a little more than 26 per cent.

Many concerns would like to know with a reasonable degree of accuracy what cost would attend the operation of, let us say, fifty five-ton gasoline trucks. If it is the intention to take over the entire administration of the equipment, a garage containing about 15,000 square feet of floor area will be necessary. For effecting repairs the following tools and machinery will be required: tire press, lathe, forge, grindstone, portable hand crane, sundry small tools and benches, the cost of which will be about \$2000. The garage crew will consist of twenty-two men—eight cleaners at \$12 a week, three ignition testers at \$15 a week, four brakemen at \$15 a week, three repairers at \$35 a week, one

foreman at \$50 a week, and three helpers at \$12 a week. This brings the internal expense up to \$392 a week. A chief clerk, two assistants and a boy will be required in the accounting department. The total of expense for this labor will be \$60 a week. Light, heat, and power will require an outlay of about \$600 a year. About \$100 will be expended for water. Lubricating oil will be used at the rate of a gallon for every 300 miles, or one-sixth of a gallon per day. The expense for lubricating oil, therefore, will be \$520 per annum, to which must be added \$260 for grease, making the total lubricating expense for fifty five-ton trucks \$780 per annum. The garage equipment will cost \$5000. Allowing \$3300 apiece as cost for the machines, and \$10,000 working capital, the investment stands at \$182,000.



A TEN-TON COAL WAGON, CAPABLE OF HAULING
EIGHTY-FOUR TONS DAILY



HORSE EQUIPMENT ATTACHED TO A MODERN TRACTOR



MACHINE USED IN ROAD-BUILDING

(Gravel is automatically dumped from bottom of the hopper as the vehicle is reversed and rolled along the laid plank track)

Under good administration the running costs will be about as follows if the machines are operated fifty miles a day, conditions being ordinary:

Rent per annum.....	\$12,000
Interest at 5% on \$182,000.....	9,100
Depreciation on \$165,000 at 15%.....	24,750
Tires, 750,000 miles at 6.05 cents.....	48,750
Gasoline, 150,000 gallons at 12 cents.....	18,000
Lubrication.....	780
Spare parts.....	5,000
Drivers' wages, 52 at \$15.....	40,560
Helpers, 52 at \$10.....	27,040
Garage staff.....	20,384
Office staff.....	3,120
Heating and lighting.....	600
Water.....	100
Sundry stores.....	500

Total.....\$210,684

The item of insurance cost is omitted from the above table. The annual expense under this head for fifty five-ton trucks will be about \$6500, or .866 cents per vehicle mile. This will bring the total running cost to 28.956 cents per mile.

The usefulness of the motor wagon is not limited to the transportation of merchandise. Its power plant is available at all times as a stationary unit to take the place of human and brute labor. It is this phase of the machine's usefulness, coupled with its well-known road economy, which leads investigators to regard it strictly as a labor-saving device. One of the New York Telephone Company's machines furnishes an admirable illustration of the valuable aid which the motor can occasionally lend, apart from its use in propelling the vehicle. Prior to the installation of this machine it was necessary to pull the telephone cables through the underground conduits by means of a capstan operated by seven or eight men. The opera-

tion was slow in comparison to the speed with which it is now done. Eighteen hundred feet of cable pulled in eight hours was considered a fine day's work. Now, however, the foreman of the motor wagon is disappointed if he falls short of 5000 feet in the same length of time, and a mile is nothing to boast of. The wagon has a carrying capacity of five tons. It carries its own reels of cable, pulleys, stanchions, tackle, and all necessary equipment, to and from the place of work, together with the men connected with it. Its power equipment consists of a battery of forty-four cells and two motors. The motor is geared to a drum around which it winds the cable. Steel uprights are extended downward into the manhole and carry adjustable pulleys top and bottom to guide the cable and hold it straight with the conduit through which it is being pulled.

The advantages of this machine are manifold. Aside from doing the work of three-horse trucks which formerly transported the cable reels and tackle to the scene of the day's labor, and pulling about three times as much cable in a day as was pulled by the old method, it pulls a much larger cable. Formerly the cables contained fifty pairs of telephone wires, and to pull any more than this was impossible. Now, however, the cables contain 300 and 400 pairs of wire, so that the actual amount of work done is ten times greater than was possible years ago.

Formerly manual labor was always employed. The use of horses was out of the question on account of the fact that in circling about the capstan they would be in interference with street traffic.

Pulling the cables by motor permits a deeper manhole, which is a distinct advantage in that more conduits can be placed in it,



GASOLINE TRI-CAR

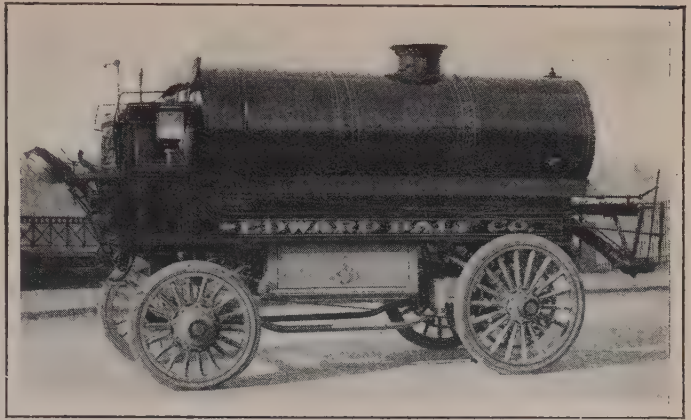
(Little used in the United States, but popular abroad)

thus enabling the telephone company to rest easy concerning the matter of caring for the expansion of its business. Eight feet was the former limit to the depth of a manhole, while twenty feet is now not at all uncommon.

Up to a certain point the speed of a power wagon can be utilized to advantage. If, however, this economical speed is steadily exceeded the useful life of the machine will be considerably shortened and its maintenance cost will be unexpectedly high. What, then, is economical speed? The answer will necessarily depend upon the rated load capacity of the vehicle, the tire diameters, and the importance attached to speed in the business being served. Under ordinary conditions sixteen miles an hour would be a decidedly economical rate of travel for a light delivery wagon. A well-designed one-ton wagon can with economy travel at fifteen miles an hour, a two-ton vehicle at twelve miles an hour, a three-ton machine at ten miles an hour, and a five-ton machine at eight miles an hour.

These speeds are so frequently exceeded in practice as to give rise to the apprehension that the whole subject of speed in its relation to the economical transportation of merchandise is sadly misunderstood.

When we recall that the average speed of a two-ton horse-drawn truck, loaded and including stops, does not exceed two and one-fifth miles per hour, it seems absurd to press



A MECHANICALLY OPERATED STREET-SPRINKLER IN SERVICE
AT HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT

(The first machine of its kind in America)

the superior speed of a motor-wagon of the same rated capacity to a point where there is risk of converting the economy of the machine into a loss. Some motor-wagon users operate upon the theory that the exercise of the speed function is in itself an economy. Hence, we occasionally find five-ton trucks traveling at fifteen miles an hour simply because they have the power to develop that speed.

Unless there is some unusual impelling cause which makes high speed desirable, it is not safe to operate a power wagon at a speed more than four times faster than a horse-drawn vehicle of equivalent rated load capacity can be moved. This rule may not hold good in the case of light delivery wagons, but experience has proven that it is quite liberal when applied to vehicles with a rated capacity of two tons and upwards.

The most noticeable effect of speed in excess of that which is economical is rapid wear on tires. Excessive speed and overload are the deadly foes of tires. In power-wagon accounting tire expense is the heaviest individual item outside of wages.

The ton-mile cost of motor-wagon transportation is a feature of accounting that should be suppressed. It is invariably misleading. Theoretically to find ton-mile cost it is only necessary to calculate the expense of moving one ton of freight one



A MECHANICAL STREET-SWEEPER

mile. This may seem alluringly simple, but in the absence of fixed standards for computing operating expense it is obviously impossible. The catch-as-catch-can style of accounting will often make it appear that the ton-mile cost of operating a machine of a certain rating is some small fraction of a cent. As a general rule this style of computation is of the fancy variety and intended for consumption by the unenlightened who mistake the bare operating cost, which fuel and lubricant represent, for the total operating cost. A single instance of operation will reveal the fallaciousness of ton-mile cost accounting. If the haul is twenty-five miles each way, with load of five tons one way, the result is 125 ton miles. But if the trip is five miles each way, and load is only carried one way, and the machine covers fifty miles, we also have 125 ton miles. But the ton-mile cost obtained under the latter condition of service will not be the same as that resulting from the former, as the expense items of labor and fuel will necessarily increase with the frequent stopping, starting, loading, and unloading.

Much unnecessary alarm is being exhibited over the failure of a number of badly deliberated attempts to break horse-wagon drivers to power-wagon duties. The frequency of these disappointing and often petty experiments, instead of giving rise to despair, should serve to attract attention to the capacity, tact, and method of those who have succeeded in effecting the desired conversion.

Undoubtedly there are unusual difficulties to be overcome in remodeling teamsters for the service of power wagons. But they are not insurmountable. Neither are they so formidable as excited fancy conjectures. It is unfortunate, however, that they should be minor or major in character precisely as the concern encountering them employs many or few motor vehicles. The recognition of this variation is important, for in its light we perceive the cause of much of the storied agony. It is preposterous to expect that the purchaser of a single power wagon, ignorant of all but its cost and not fully convinced of the necessity for giving it a larger measure of administrative attention than is customary in the case of horse wagons, can secure or retain the services of a competent driver as easily as a concern which operates a large number of machines. It follows naturally, therefore, that the best power-wagon drivers are in the employ of establishments with the widest range of practice, where nothing in the way of stock equipment or maintenance of rolling stock is left to hazard.

In estimating the wage which should be paid to motor-wagon drivers there are several very important elements to be considered, namely, the competency of the men, and the character of the duties they perform. If a driver is selected for his known ability to care for as well as steer a machine, it would be reasonable to expect that he should be rewarded at a higher rate than one who merely discharges road duties. Furthermore, if he must handle loads, his work in this respect will be in proportion to the rating of the machine. As the cost of maintenance is largely dependent upon the skill of the driver it is worth while to keep him at his best by paying him what he is worth. Poorly paid drivers cause heavy loss, as they are usually incompetent.

Before they can thoroughly qualify for motor-wagon investment many establishments must learn to recognize the difference between the economy which is represented by the potential capacity of the machine and that which it may exhibit in practice.

Broadly speaking, firms which are contemplating the use of motor wagons may be divided into two classes, one consisting of those which resolutely intend to work the machines actively, and the other those which propose to operate them whenever it is convenient to do so. The former invariably constitute the class which eventually obtains maximum economy. Many of the latter develop into quarrelsome, hypercritical, and disappointed users who blame the machine for shortcomings which have origin in themselves.

It is surprising to observe the number of people who have fallen into the habit of considering the motor wagon merely as a vehicle. Its true classification is as a labor-saving machine. Machinery of any kind which is only worked to 40 or 50 per cent. of its capacity will inevitably make a poorer financial showing than that which is worked to full effective capacity. The proper adjustment of loading and unloading conditions, as well as routing, therefore, is of very great importance in developing the economy of the motor wagon. In some services it not infrequently happens that its idle hours are almost as numerous as its active periods. If this state of affairs prevails in a service where draft-animal competition has already caused the transportation cost to become very low, it is practically hopeless to expect that the machine will make a very creditable showing.

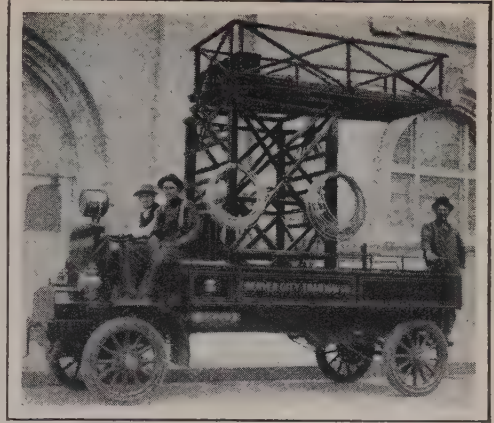
The appalling mortality among draft animals during the early days of July, 1911, fur-

nishes a historic record of their inferiority to motors in haulage. For eleven days the poor brutes died by thousands from the effects of heat and overwork. Sunbonnets, carefully selected summer feed, moderate work—none of the favorite prescriptions for equine health proved effective. This sickening tragedy is enacted every year. The horse, however tenderly cared for, is a bad risk. If he is worked hard his years of usefulness are inevitably shortened, while if he is worked light his service is unprofitable. In extremes of heat and cold his physical shortcomings are most apparent, for in one case he is easily fatigued and in the other peculiarly susceptible to disease. On the other hand, the power wagon's energy is a fixed quantity throughout the year. It is a good risk, which is made better by the care given to it, but never sinks below an easily determined point.

With the approach of winter fresh disasters may be expected. Slippery streets will cause strains and bruises, and the latter will develop into yet more serious trouble. Pneumonia and other pulmonary diseases will claim their usual share of victims. The death rate during the cold months will be a little lower than in summer, but the service will not be any better.

And yet some people are intolerant of the slightest fault in a motor wagon, despite the fact that it is much more reliable and economical than a horse.

When experts are invited to aid in the installation of power wagons, they always keep in mind the importance of scientific adminis-



MOTOR TOWER WAGON USED FOR THE REPAIR OF ELECTRIC RAILWAY OVERHEAD EQUIPMENT IN DENVER

tration and accounting. Loose and inaccurate methods for computing cost of operation and maintenance for their scrupulously avoid. For example, the annual charge for depreciation is invariably ascertained from a careful consideration of mileage. Wear is the result of work performance, and the charge for it is great or little as the duty of the machine varies.

The absurdity of establishing a fixed depreciation charge for vehicles of all ratings employed in grossly dissimilar service should be self-evident. The work performance of a machine traveling forty miles a day at a speed of twelve miles an hour, with full load for only

50 per cent. of the distance, can hardly be expected to cause as much wear as is occasioned if a wagon of like rating covers sixty miles a day at the same speed, fully loaded the entire distance. A machine which is actively operated and full loaded must necessarily depreciate in value more quickly than one which is lightly loaded and sent into service with comparative infrequency.

Since depreciation is demonstrated a function of the service, it is about time the common custom of absorbing motor-wagon investment within four or five years was abandoned. This is a vicious trade practice, which encourages prospective cus-



MACHINE WHICH AFFORDS EXTRAORDINARY ECONOMY IN PULLING UNDERGROUND CABLE AND TRANSPORTING CREW OF WORKMEN

tomers to infer that the life of a machine is definitely expressed by the high annual depreciation charge. Given a good system of repair and maintenance, the service life of a motor wagon, well administered, may easily be eight or ten years, and possibly much longer, providing no extraordinary conditions attend operation.

The custom of sharply writing off motor-wagon investment is falsely established. It had origin in the economy of the machine. Years ago salesmen were so eager to persuade buyers of the superior usefulness of mechanical equipment that they purposely marked it extravagantly high, and so was founded the practice of representing that investment could be quickly absorbed in profit from operation. This practice still persists, in spite of the fact that it works manifest injustice to the cause of motor-wagon transportation.

It must be apparent to any clear thinking man that an unnecessarily high charge for depreciation compels the retention of an item of administrative expense which robs the machine of much credit for profitable performance. It is much more important for the business man to know precisely what advantage motor transport has over horse haulage than it is to feed him with artificial bookkeeping. General machinery is worked to full capacity whenever possible; it is dismantled, redesigned, and its life prolonged by all available means.

The modern system of repairing and maintaining motor wagons makes provision for the

retention, repair, remodeling, or strengthening of such parts as are subject to deterioration. With the possible exception of the frame, every part of a vehicle, given suitable repair, has indefinite life, and under such circumstances depreciation is almost wholly a matter of obsolescence. There are quite a number of ten-year-old motor wagons in service the parts and the equipment of which have been renewed from time to time. They are performing creditably wherever the duty expected of them is not highly competitive in character.

Few motor wagons have been consigned to the scrap heap, and these only because the design was radically at fault, or because their owners, ignorant of machine administration of any kind, made selection of units without due regard for the service in which they were employed. There are even instances on record where badly designed machines have been satisfactorily remodeled for service, which, by the way, is more than can be said, in most cases at least, for a badly designed quadruped.

Settling down to exact statement with respect to the service of a motor wagon, experience teaches that 150,000 miles is not too much to expect from well-designed models which receive expert administrative attention. On this presumption a two-ton truck traveling fifty miles a day for 300 days in the year would have a certain useful life of ten years, and the depreciation charge would be 10 per cent. per annum.



GASOLINE FIVE-TON TRUCK IN USE IN LUMBERING OPERATIONS IN THE BERKSHIRE MOUNTAINS



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

PART OF ONE OF THE BIG CROWDS THAT ATTEND THE ORCHESTRAL CONCERTS AT
THE MALL, CENTRAL PARK

(These concerts, given three times a week during the season, afford a remarkable demonstration of the popular appreciation of high-class music. From 5000 to 15,000 people make up an audience on a Saturday or Sunday afternoon. Printed programs are distributed, as at all the park concerts)

NEW YORK'S MUNICIPAL MUSIC: TWO YEARS' ADVANCE

BY ARTHUR FARWELL

(Supervisor of Municipal Concerts, New York City)

IN the spring of 1910 action was taken in New York City which placed on a new and hitherto untried basis the municipal concerts that are given in summer in the public parks and on the recreation piers on the water front. This action was of a nature to admit of experiments of many kinds looking toward the determination of the public taste in music and its capacity for development. Under two years of the new régime the results in certain important directions have been so striking and decisive that they should now be made widely known.

It is true that the nature of the problem in New York City differs vastly from that which is to be met with in any other American city. But it differs chiefly in being more inclusive. Almost any problem of municipal

music which could arise in any city or village in America is to be found working itself out in one or another corner of the great New York system; with its concerts by sixty-four bands and orchestras assigned regularly or in alternation to thirty-four parks and recreation centers. From an organization akin to the "village band," as at Tottenville, Staten Island, with farmers from miles about sitting with their families in their wagons listening to the concerts on the school green, to symphony orchestras playing the masterworks of the world's great musicians to vast crowds eager to hear, as in Central Park and on some of the recreation piers, New York City presents most of the phenomena which are to be observed in the giving of music to the people.

MUSIC FOR ALL NATIONALITIES

There are localities where the audiences are composed wholly of Italians, who sing with the band everything from Santa Lucia to "Butterfly" and "Tosca." And there are localities whose music-lovers send in letters like the following, "Wap," be it understood, meaning *Italian*:

I am Glad We found Who gives out the Wap Music for the old 9th Ward at abingdon Square as We are all true americans We Dont Relish them Forighn Wap Music if you Will Please Give Some of the old time Sentimental Music We Will appreciate it Verry Much We Remain yours truly young Americans of the Old Greenwich Village.

The "Wap" music in question consisted of such old stand-bys of the band repertory as the overture to "William Tell," the sextet from "Lucia di Lammermoor," etc.

There are very few audiences representing the mixed population of New York, about the only instances of this being at the concerts at Central Park, Madison Square, Battery Park, and Bryant Park, adjoining the new Public Library. There might also be included two or three outlying parks, such as Fort Washington Park, overlooking the Hudson from the upper part of the city, the Staten Island parks, and the recreation pier at West 129th Street. Racial segregation is the rule. There are audiences of Hungarians, of Irish-Americans, of Russian Jews, of Bohemians, or occasionally audiences representing a mixture of two or perhaps three races, with a smattering of "Americans," whatever they may be.

MUNICIPAL CONCERTS

The revolutionary action referred to was coincident with the incoming of the Gaynor administration. Municipal concerts in New York fall under the jurisdiction of two of the city departments: the Department of Parks, with Mr. Charles B. Stover as its present commissioner, and the Department of Docks and Ferries, whose commissioner is now Mr. Calvin Tomkins. To these two departments is made an appropriation for a summer season of from thirteen to fifteen weeks of public concerts, aggregating about \$100,000, sometimes a little less. This is for Manhattan and Staten Island, but does not include Brooklyn and the Bronx, where the Park Departments have their own appropriations and independent systems.

Previous to the present administration there was neither a musical advisory board

back of the expenditure of this money, nor supervision of the music in any manner. The privilege of giving band concerts was granted to certain leaders. In the golden age of the band in America with its Gilmores, Cappas, and Levys, the quality of the music took care of itself in no inadequate manner. The unregulated continuance of this system, however, and the extension of these grants to innumerable leaders, and musicians, often hopelessly bad ones, who were not in reality leaders but who managed to secure engagements as such, led to a degeneration of band music in New York, to which the public became awakened in the fall of 1909, with the exposure of "dummies" in the bands, that is, men who held instruments, and drew their pay, but who could not play a note.

CITIZENS' COÖPERATION

The new commissioners, Mr. Stover and Mr. Tomkins, finding themselves, in the spring of 1910, confronted by the necessity of spending to the best advantage their respective appropriations for music, decided to call in a citizens' committee, a body representative of the citizenship of New York in its musical interests, with which to advise.

The membership of this committee, which remains intact the second year, is as follows: Mr. Walter Damrosch, Mr. Severo Mallet-Prevost, Mr. Harry Harkness Flagler, Mr. Whitney Warren, Mrs. John R. MacArthur, and Mrs. Howard Mansfield.

The commissioners, in consultation with this committee, decided to reduce materially the number of leaders appointed, making a careful selection and giving each a longer engagement, and to provide for a supervisor of the public concerts. In this action lay a revolution, which if it did not change the political and financial basis on which the concerts rest, at least transferred the direction of them to a musical judiciary. It made it possible to take great strides forward in giving good music, well rendered, to the people of New York, and to watch and record the results.

THE PROBLEM OF "UPLIFT" IN MUSICAL TASTE

The appropriation of city money for the municipal concerts solves, in New York, the first problem of such public concerts, namely, their support. The remaining problem is to determine their character. And here arises the old and threadbare, yet ever renewed question of "uplift,"—whether to give the



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

THE CROWD AROUND THE BAND AT ONE OF THE THURSDAY NIGHT CONCERTS AT HAMILTON FISH PARK, ON THE LOWER EAST SIDE

people "what they want" (which means what they are supposed by this or that person to want), or "what they ought to have" (which means what this or that person thinks they ought to have). If cheap or "ragtime" music—one must deal cautiously with the word "popular" after witnessing the *popularity* of Schubert, Wagner, and Tschaikowsky with the tens of thousands in Central Park and elsewhere—if cheap music, then, gives the greatest pleasure to the greatest number, and brings forth the applause of the crowd; if uplift means misapplying the funds of the city by forcing upon people something which they do not want; if uplift means strain and effort disproportionate to the gain in improved public taste,—then why gratuitously undertake this unpromising and apparently uncalled-for work of "uplift"?

It is in some such pessimistic form as this that the question is commonly asked, or thought of, even if unasked. The sentimentalist and the untamed idealist will have ready answers, well intentioned and not wrong in general direction, but without the

merit of having a foundation in real life. The answers that are needed to these questions must spring from a practical trial under conditions as nearly ideal as may be obtained; and, hedged in with difficulties as they have been, the experiments of the last two summer seasons in New York may well be considered as constituting such a trial. A little observation of the practical results obtained will prove more illuminating than such discussion.

HIGH-CLASS SYMPHONY PROGRAMS RECEIVED WITH ZEST

The Mall, in Central Park, has been the sun around which has revolved the solar system of concerts of lesser proportions. There, under the trees on the terrace, great eager crowds have gathered three times weekly to hear the concerts of two alternating symphony orchestras, conducted by Arnold Volpe and Franz Kaltenborn. These crowds number habitually from five to ten thousand people, and on some occasions have been estimated to number upwards of fifteen

thousand. The people come from all parts of the city, and even from other cities, on Wednesday evenings and on Saturday and Sunday afternoons, many arriving two hours and more before the concert, in order to get desirable or favorite seats. Every concert is a gala occasion. Such a degree of persistent popular enthusiasm in any event would be somewhat surprising, but it becomes more so when we consider the programs which attract these great masses. One rendered by Franz Kaltenborn, for July 26, 1911, was as follows:

Berlioz, Rakoczy March; Beethoven, Overture, "Lenore No. 3"; Beethoven, Fifth Symphony, last three movements; Liszt, Symphonic Poem, "Tasso"; Herold, Overture, "Zampa"; Mendelssohn, Andante from Violin Concerto (Mr. Kaltenborn, soloist); Strauss, Waltz, "Thousand and One Nights"; Wagner, "The Rhinegold," Song of the Rhine Daughters, arrival of the Giants, Song of Fricka, Loge passing through Nibelheim, and entrance of the Gods into Walhalla; Wagner, "Ride of the Valkyries."

And consider the following program, the first half of which is arranged historically, given by Arnold Volpe on September 13:

Bach, Choral and Fugue (arranged by Abert); Haydn, Finale, Symphony No. 13; Mozart, Overture, "Magic Flute"; Beethoven, Overture, "Lenore No. 3"; Wagner, Prelude to "Die Meistersinger"; Wagner, Wotan's Farewell and Magic Fire scene from "Die Walküre"; Tchaikowsky, Overture, "1812"; Wagner, Walther's Prize Song from "Die Meistersinger" (violin solo by Maximilian Pilzer); Tchaikowsky, Waltz from "The Sleeping Beauty"; Wagner, "Ride of the Valkyries."

This program contained descriptive notes for most of the numbers, the suggestion for this having come to Commissioner Stover in a letter from a resident of Orange, N. J., who wrote that he attended regularly all the Wednesday evening concerts.

Many of the programs are on a similar high plane, and even those having a lighter cast are above the usual popular program in character. And still these concerts are not merely acceptable—they are phenomenally popular, and present on every occasion scenes of the greatest enthusiasm. It is doubtful if anywhere in the world a summer series of outdoor concerts is to be found which maintains such a standard, and draws such vast and enthusiastic crowds.

"RAGTIME" ON THE PIERS

Even more startling in its results, because of the swiftness with which those results have been obtained, is the symphony orchestra

conducted by Arthur Bergh, which was instituted this year on the recreation piers, where heretofore only small brass bands have been heard. This innovation is without doubt the most radical step in musical uplift which the city has yet taken. The recreation piers are situated on the river fronts, east and west, and are frequented by the working people of the marginal districts, as artistically unsophisticated an element of the population as could be found, and oftentimes downright rough. Each of the eight piers, great double-decked, roofed structures, has a concert every night during the season. The pier audiences, up to the beginning of the present season, were familiar only with the usual repertory of the small band, largely ragtime up to 1910, when the new order of things accomplished an advance in the character of the programs, not however without threatened disaster, as on the West 50th Street pier on one occasion. This neighborhood bears a reputation for belligerency which would do honor to the realms of the ancient Irish kings from whom many of its residents are undoubtedly descended. On that pier the band has always played in perpetual terror. On the occasion in question, the leader—it was Mr. Bergh, who last year was in charge of one of the pier bands—having just played some music of a higher order than ragtime, was accosted by a "gang," whose spokesman delivered himself as follows: "Say, cut it out. What we want is ragtime, and plenty of it. We're *tough!*" (through his teeth) "and we want to *stay* tough; and we're proud of it!"

The leader thereafter kept some ragtime always handy on his rack, and as soon as he finished any number which savored of respectability, he shifted as speedily as possible to the ragtime, to make an acceptable finish and avert disaster.

RAISING THE STANDARDS

The incident represents an extreme condition, a bit of militant savagery in the midst of what is, at most, unsophistication. The pier audiences are in general well behaved, but to offer them anything in the nature of a symphony concert would have appeared sheer madness to many. The Dock Department, planning one organization larger than the other bands, in order to establish a higher standard, nevertheless accepted the writer's suggestion that it be an orchestra. The result was, that these people, many, perhaps most, of whom had never heard an orchestral organization of symphonic propor-



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

SCENE AT ONE OF THE SATURDAY AFTERNOON CONCERTS AT MORNINGSIDE PARK WHICH ATTRACT MANY CHILDREN OF THE NEIGHBORHOOD

tions in their lives, after two or three days of perplexity, were won over to enthusiasm for orchestral music. They were approached with simple and good programs, containing works by such composers as Massenet, Grieg, and MacDowell, and standard overtures, waltzes, and light opera selections. But before the close of the season they were responding with enthusiasm to Schubert's "Unfinished" Symphony, Goldmark's "Rustic Wedding" Symphony, and Mendelssohn's "Italian," which latter made a *furor* on the West 129th Street pier. These audiences now heard the standard overtures no longer as transcriptions for small bands, but in their original form, glowing with orchestral color, and became familiar with a multitude of works new to them,—the "Carneval Romain" of Berlioz, "Siegfried's Death," compositions of Mozart, Tschaikowsky, Saint Saëns, and many others. In short, this marginal population found little difficulty in acquiring the beginnings of a modern cosmopolitan musical appreciation, and displayed enthusiasms which, under other circumstances, would never have had the opportunity of revelation. The human spirit is very tractable in these ways.

A liberal attitude toward compositions by native composers was maintained by all the orchestras, and the list of new American works brought out during the past two years

would mount up well. Some of these works have found their place in the concerts of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, and other orchestras of the great cities.

The seven pier bands, playing every night, and the many park bands, playing each once a week, have given the standard band repertory over the length and breadth of the city. Commissioner Stover has opened up many new music centers, giving concerts on the ground or on improvised platforms where there are as yet no band-stands. It is a weird sight, in the congested East Side at night, to see the extended circle of swarming and peering faces, lit by the glare of the calcium lights, surrounding the band which a few policemen save from being stampeded. This is in striking contrast with the afternoon concerts in the far uptown parks, as Morningside, or Colonial Park, where the people, young and old, recline at ease upon the grassy lawns or hillsides to hear the music.

There is a sameness about these band programs, due to the limitations of the repertory of the small band, which is the despair of one working for a broader and fresher influence in public music. But there is a vast difference in the degree of verve with which these programs can be given. Good, spirited conducting is more than half the battle in winning popular sympathy. It may be put down as a maxim that no composition is to be placed

on the *index expurgatorius* of popular disapproval until it has been given by the right conductor.

These bands never rehearse. Everything is played at sight in public, even new and difficult works. The musicians are supposed to be capable of anything, and many of them are. A leader will know what he may safely expect of his men.

The band concerts at Tottenville, Staten Island, already referred to, present a unique condition in the New York system. The members of this band are, with but a very few exceptions, business men of Tottenville who are musical amateurs. This band has met and rehearsed weekly for twenty years, under the sympathetic direction of F. L. Hadkins, who, like the others, is a business man and musical amateur. The spirit of these concerts, which have about them something of the village band concert of the olden days, is noticeably different from the purely professional band concerts in Manhattan,—the devotion which has produced the result becoming, as it were, something tangible to the auditor. Last year was the first in which this band had professional engagements from the city.

The occasional coöperation of the United Singers of New York, F. Albeke, conductor, and the People's Choral Union, under the direction of Frank Damrosch, should be mentioned. Choral singing should be encouraged as a feature of municipal music. It is likely to have an important bearing on public music developments later on, when a higher purpose and closer organization of forces has been attained.

Children's folk dancing on several of the recreation piers, three afternoons each week, has also been one of the most successful features of the past two years' activities. The children attend these events in great numbers and become very expert in many national folk dances, taught by young women provided by the Parks and Playgrounds Association. At the close of the season they are assembled, in costume, at one of the largest piers, for a Folk Dance Festival.

LESSONS FROM NEW YORK'S EXPERIENCE

In reviewing these results, and considering the general question of "uplift" *versus* "giving the people what they want," it may be possible to deduce a few principles that will have a practical bearing on experiments elsewhere, or upon further experiments in New York.

In the first place, it must be recognized that "uplift" is not to be thought of, or vaguely imagined, as giving the people what they do not want. The Socialist mayor of Milwaukee learned this not long since, when he instructed his municipal band leader to give the people plenty of ragtime, and the band leader's invitation for requests brought forth about 80 per cent. of requests for standard music.

In the second place, it must be recognized that no one can know what the people want until he has given them an adequate view of the whole range of the world's music for a period of time sufficient to enable them to become familiar with music of which they have had no previous knowledge. No opinion is to be formed on the basis of a public taste which has had no other opportunity of enlightenment than the hurdy-gurdy of the streets and the music of the moving picture shows. Nor is a musical rowdiness here or there, with its noisy acclaim of bad music, a gauge of the true public taste, latent or otherwise.

In short, there is no such thing as a flat question of "uplift" against "giving the people what they want." There are no marked boundaries. The public is made up of many elements, of groups of persons differing widely in temperament and in ready or latent appreciation. The wise musical administration will be the one which steadily holds the highest standards constantly before the people, despite factional contentions or personal disgruntlements, and which at the same time will not be squeamish about giving a liberal measure of ragtime where present conditions demand it. It is well known that purchasers of phonographs and player-pianos quickly tire of the cheap music which they get at the outset, and begin to ask for music of a higher quality. There has been no harm in letting them have "what they wanted" in the first place. The people cannot know what they want until they know what there is. The American public is woefully lacking in the knowledge of what exists. People, it is true, like the beasts of the field, "know what they want," but only within the range of what they already know. "Uplift," in public music lies not so much in winning people to like what they did not like before, as in giving them a chance to enjoy something which they did not know before. This does not mean that a symphony concert can with success be given to an audience wholly unprepared for it, although even that, under exceptional circumstances, has been done in New York. But it



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

A SUNDAY AFTERNOON CONCERT IN THE WOODS AT FORT WASHINGTON PARK, NEAR 180th STREET AND THE HUDSON RIVER

does mean that, when sympathetically and not too suddenly approached, almost any audience will spontaneously rise to the enjoyment of music of the highest standards. Now that the great Central Park audiences have come to depend upon programs of so high a class, there would be nothing less than a revolt at the suggestion of lowering the standard.

SUPREMACY OF THE ORCHESTRA

The question is not one of programs merely. If the Central Park audiences would resent a lowering of the standard of the music given, it would be interesting to see what those audiences would do if the city were to suggest taking away their symphony orchestra and replacing it with the military band. They have long since learned to enjoy the infinite variety of tone colors of the orchestra, and to compare with it unfavorably the comparative sameness of sound of the band. And they have gained a familiarity with a wide range of the world's masterpieces, in all cases composed for orchestra, which are either impossible to the band or to be heard with the

band only in transcriptions conveying a wholly inadequate idea of the composer's conception. Once the decision is made to give to the people music of a quality equal to the quality of literature and painting given them in libraries and art museums, the orchestra becomes indispensable. The concert band, fine instrument that it has now become at its best, is but a development of the military band, which existed in the first place for purposes quite other than those of musical art. Music—the world's music to-day, and ever since Haydn, in fact—has gone the way of the orchestra, with its fourfold foundation upon strings, wood-wind, brass, and percussion. If the great music of the world is to be brought to the people as it was composed, it must be brought to them through the medium of the orchestra.

The orchestra cannot compete with the band in sheer loudness, though it does not fall far behind it in this respect, requiring only a proper shell or sound screen behind it to carry its sound adequately to the largest crowds. Such a shell is to be seen in perfection in Golden Gate Park, San Francisco, where the acoustics are extraordinarily good. New

York is thus far without such shells, although this will probably be remedied before long. The best answer to the criticism of the orchestra on the score of tone volume is the fact that the most brilliant and astonishing successes of the municipal music renaissance in New York have been due to the introduction of the symphony orchestras. The orchestral concerts in Central Park have drawn out greater crowds than ever attended concerts at this place before, and have attained an unprecedented reputation as brilliant public musical events. The newer orchestral experiment on the piers promises a similar development.

RESPONSIBILITY OF AMERICAN CITIES

Taking a broader view of the whole question of municipal music, American municipalities engaged in giving public concerts can no longer be unaware that a question of duty enters into the establishment and maintenance of musical standards. If it sufficed once for politicians, anywhere in America, to throw out a sop to the people in the form of nondescript band concerts, it no longer suffices. The United States is fully aware of its deficiency in public musical appreciation in comparison with many other countries, and in so far as any American municipal government touches the subject, it cannot shirk the responsibility of lifting the conditions as

nearly as may be to the level of the best present-world standards. National pride should dictate this, quite aside from the question of local betterment. American cities already pride themselves on their public libraries and art museums. They would scarcely do so if the libraries were given over to the dime novel and the art museums to the chromo. It is now time that Americans should be equally concerned in a public music of something better than a ragtime standard. The "popular song," like the poor, will always be with us, but it should not usurp the place which music in its broader aspects should hold in the life of the people.

Music, both as an interpretive and a creative art, has made such giant strides in this country of late years, that many hold it to be *the* American art. While it shows itself so phenomenally capable of prospering with the masses, it should be given every opportunity to grow and spread. The best in people is entitled to opportunity and recognition, even in faith, where its precise nature cannot be foreknown, and the experiments in New York show that in musical appreciation it is the part of wisdom to treat the people in the light of their better possibilities, without, however, being precipitate in demanding that they shall break faith with their cruder tastes. Such a course will accomplish the most in the furtherance of the national musical taste, talent, and genius.



ONE OF THE RECREATION PIERS (24TH STREET) WHERE FOLK DANCES ARE GIVEN

THE STORY OF THE CIVIL WAR TOLD BY PHOTOGRAPHS¹

BY GENERAL HORATIO C. KING

WE have it on the authority of the Librarian of Congress that nearly seven thousand treatises on the Civil War or some part of it have been issued since its close. This probably does not include the pamphlet publications, well-nigh innumerable, comprising addresses and brief sketches of striking incidents. A considerable number of the histories have been illustrated with more or less accuracy by sketches real and some fanciful. Doubtless many old veterans have wondered why some one did not undertake the collection and publication of the great number of actual photographs of every phase of army life, some of which were easily accessible through the Government or other sources. Still the primal difficulties in collecting photographs from all over the United States were not slight. It meant, too, a great outlay of money, and at times without adequate return. But at last the means has been found for the task which has culminated in ten splendid volumes, every page of which is a pictorial and literary treat.

WAR-TIME PHOTOGRAPHY

Our familiarity with the outcome of the great discovery in 1839 of Daguerre has blunted our appreciation of its enormous benefit and value. The art was introduced in this country in 1840, and had been in general use not over fifteen years when the war broke out. The discovery of a method of multiplying pictures from a single negative by the photographic process was made only a few years before the secession of the Southern States. The dry plate was unknown. In our most recent war with Spain, every squad and company were provided with a kodak, and now no man or woman who is dragged into the limelight of publicity can escape the attacks of camera fiends. The veteran George G. Rockwood, the dean of the New York photographers, who died only a few weeks ago (July 10) in his

eightieth year, thus describes the wet process of the war period. We condense his statement somewhat:

The glasses, usually 8 x 10, were carried in dust-proof boxes. The plate was carefully coated with collodion, which carried in solution the excitants bromide and iodide of potassium or ammonia or cadmium. The coating of the plates was a delicate operation even in the ordinary well-organized studio. After coating the plate with collodion and letting the ether or alcohol evaporate to just the right degree of stickiness, it was lowered carefully into a deep "bath-holder," which contained a solution of nitrate of silver, about 60° for quick field work. This was done in the dark, except a subdued yellow light. When coated it was placed in a slide. When it was exposed, and it must be within five minutes, it was returned to the dark room to be developed within five minutes also, else it was love's labor lost.

BRADY AND HIS EMULATORS

The accessories were a four-wheeled covered wagon for preparing and developing the plates and a small two-wheeled affair to approach the less accessible positions. When it is considered that many of these pictures were of battle scenes, taken under fire, it will readily be seen that it required a man of nerve to carry out the work. The first to undertake this arduous and oftentimes hazardous task was M. B. Brady, a native of Ireland, whose name has become a household word. He expended more than \$100,000, and practically bankrupted himself. The Government relieved his distress temporarily by purchasing his plates at the moderate cost of \$25,000, but he lapsed again into poverty and died in a hospital in New York City in the nineties, neglected save by a few old friends.

The wagon was sometimes enlarged to provide sleeping quarters for the operators, and its presence at the front always excited much curiosity and was commonly known as the "What-is-it?" Brady's example was followed

¹The Photographic History of the Civil War. Review of Reviews Company. 10 volumes, 3500 pp., 3888 illustrations. \$31 per set.

by others, both North and South, one operator, A. D. Lytle, of Baton Rouge, training his camera on Union troops and furnishing the results to the Confederate Government, thus incurring the additional risk of being hung as a spy. Many of the war pictures were as finely executed as any of modern days, which is the more remarkable because the plates could not be touched up as now. The vicissitudes which followed the completion of the photographs cannot be described at length here. They were kicked about from pillar to post, seized for debt or laid away neglected in attics. It remained for modern publishing enterprise, by unexampled research, to ferret them out and by the wonderful half-tone process preserve and perpetuate them in enduring form. A small army of zealous workers has been engaged in this undertaking, and the photographs have been supplemented by descriptions of important events by historians, many of whom were active participants on either side in the struggle.

FIFTY YEARS AFTER

That was a beautiful and deeply impressive exhibition of the peace spirit at the recent semi-centennial celebration of the first battle of Bull Run, held jointly by the soldiers who fifty years ago confronted each other on that field in deadly combat. Hundreds met and fraternized as kindred spirits, and, forming in two lines, the men who wore the blue facing South and the men who wore the gray facing North, advanced with outstretched hands to greet each other and in fraternal embrace pledged eternal friendship. The memories of the struggle could not be effaced, but its animosities are buried and forgotten. Moreover, no one, and least of all the young, can look at the gruesome representations of a battlefield after an engagement without being impressed and horrified by the awful tragedy. They will no longer regard military service in time of war as a gaudy show and picnic, but will realize that the Civil War was the most terrible of carnages, which claimed as its victims by shells, bullets, and disease in four years the staggering aggregate of nearly eight hundred thousand of the picked youth of the land. The conflict settled a great principle, the adjustment of which seemed impracticable, if not impossible, in any other way. Proposals of gradual emancipation had been obliterated in the angry oral and written contests, growing each year more and more heated, contests which, in the providence of God, could not be determined save by the

arbitrament of the sword. But it should afford no inducement to the youth of this age to "seek the bubble reputation at the cannon's mouth."

THE CAMERA'S UNPREJUDICED RECORD

The classification of the vast material collected through innumerable channels by the REVIEW OF REVIEWS Company was no easy matter. It has been made, however, with excellent judgment and skill under the direction of Mr. Francis Trevelyan Miller as editor, and Robert S. Lanier, managing editor, aided by a competent corps of assistants. Volume I opens with a Confederate photograph of Fort Barrancas, which Governor Perry of Florida had seized even before the bombardment of Fort Sumter. Such a work is appropriately dedicated "fifty years after Fort Sumter to the Men in Blue and Gray whose valor and devotion have become the priceless heritage of a united nation." Then follow a preface by the publisher and an editorial introduction, succeeded by a most interesting recital of how the photographs were made and the negatives procured, by Henry Wysham Lanier. President Taft manifests his approval of the project by a patriotic letter in which he writes: "We have reached a point, I am glad to say, when the North can admire to the full the heroes of the South and the South admire to the full the heroes of the North." Bitter animosity has subsided, and all must agree with him that now "we can look, not without love, not without intense pride, but without partisan passion, to the events of the Civil War."

CAMPAIGNS AND BATTLES RECALLED

In addition to the wealth of illustration, this volume contains admirable articles embracing a "Semi-Centennial Retrospect," or "The Photographic Record as History," by George Haven Putnam; "The Federal Navy and the South," by Rear Admiral French E. Chadwick,—a graphic account of the navy's part in the war, which is sometimes overlooked and is not generally appreciated to its full extent; "Records of the War between the States," by Marcus J. Wright, ex-Confederate Brigadier-General and Agent of the United States War Department for the Collection of Military Records; "The Strategy of the Civil War Leaders," by Eben Swift, Lieutenant-Colonel of the Eighth U. S. Cavalry. Then follows (in the remainder of the first and continuing through the second and third volumes)

the narrative of the battles and campaigns in chronological sequence, beginning with "Bull Run—the Volunteers Face Fire," the story of the initial contest between two poorly disciplined mobs, which "did the South great injury in that it left vast numbers to believe that the war was over and the South had won . . . and brought joy to the Confederacy and grief to the States of the North"; "The Fall of Forts Henry and Donelson," at which latter tragedy "Bull Run was offset by the victors who gained control of an extensive territory and captured a noble army (14,000 men) which could ill be spared by the South and could not be replaced"; "Shiloh, the First Grand Battle," where the indecisive engagement of the first day was turned into a victory for the Union forces on the second; "New Madrid and Island Number Ten," where Pope's success led to his unfortunate command of the Army of Northern Virginia in the Second Bull Run fiasco,—the last three vividly described by Henry W. Elson, Professor of History at Ohio University: "New Orleans—The Navy Helps the Army," where Farragut immortalized himself and Butler proved a most energetic and efficient executive, by James Barnes; "Fort Pillow and Memphis: Gunboats and Batteries;" and "The Struggle for the Confederate Capital," including "Yorktown," "Up the Peninsula," "Fair Oaks," "In sight of Richmond," "The Shenandoah and the Alarm at Washington," "Seven Days," "The Confederate Capital Saved,"—all by the prolific and most interesting author, Professor Elson. The volume concludes with a condensed statement of the engagements of the Civil War, a chronological summary from December, 1860, to August, 1862, compiled by Captain George L. Kilmer from the Union and Confederate Archives in Washington City, and maps of the theater of war begin and end the volume.

STATISTICS OF BOTH ARMIES

The immensity of the unprecedented contest is well set forth by General Wright. On the Union side 2,865,028 enlistments are accounted for, but in all probability it will never be known how many of these were reenlistments. The first call was for three-months' men and three times the militia were called out to meet great emergencies, serving three months each time. Then there were calls for nine-months' and two-years' men in large numbers, one-hundred-day men to man the entrenchments and allow veteran troops to go to the front, and finally the enlistments

for three years or the war, many thousands of whom reenlisted in 1864, at the expiration of their term of service. The Southern enlistments, of which no very accurate record has been kept, numbered about a million. The apparent discrepancy between the forces is not so real when we consider that the North had a picket line from Maryland to New Mexico, and an immense country to guard and protect, as the Southern armies: were forced Southward in the long struggle. The Union records were kept with practical accuracy and were not lost or destroyed to any great extent. The North lost 61,362 killed in battle; 34,733 died of wounds; 183,287 died of disease; 306 died through accident, and 267 were executed. The Adjutant-General in 1869 reported the total number of deaths at 303,504, but it is believed the loss was greater by many thousands. On the Confederate side, the tabulated rolls show that 52,954 were killed in battle, 21,570 died of wounds, and 59,297 died of disease. The last item is manifestly incorrect and far below a reasonable estimate.

THE STORY YEAR BY YEAR

The text of the second volume is by Henry W. Elson, already mentioned; and the photographic descriptions of this and Volume I are by James Barnes, author of "David G. Farragut," etc. A map of the theater of Southwestern campaigns and one of the theater of the Western campaigns open and close the volume, while the frontispiece represents the Dunkard Church, the center of the Antietam slaughter, after the bloodiest day's fight in the annals of the war. Part I, entitled "The Rise of Lee," includes "Cedar Mountain,"—where several Federal regiments attacked by vastly superior numbers lost 56 per cent.; "The Second Battle of Bull Run," "Antietam," "The Invasion of the North," "Fredericksburg," a disaster for a new Union leader, and "Chancellorsville and Jackson's Flanking Movement."

Part II embraces "The Opening of the Mississippi," including "Baton Rouge," "The Assault on Corinth," "The Mid-Winter Combat at Stone's River" (usually termed Murfreesboro by the North), and the sieges of Vicksburg and Port Hudson. Part III, "The Crisis," includes Gettysburg; Part IV, "Along the Tennessee" including "Chickamauga" and "The Battles on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge," and the volume concludes with another statistical record by Captain Kilmer of the engagements from August, 1862, to April, 1864.



CAPT. A. W. GREELY, 1863; LATER
MAJ.-GEN., U. S. A.; CHIEF
SIGNAL SERVICE
("Signals"; "Telegraph")



PRIVATE GEO. L. KILMER IN '64; WEAR-
ING THE "VETERAN STRIPE"
AT EIGHTEEN
(Military Editor)



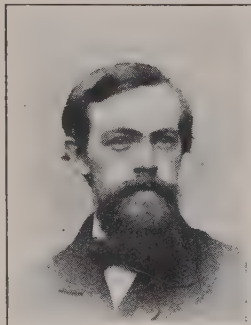
BVT. BRIG.-GEN. T. F. RODEN-
BOUGH, U. S. A., IN 1865;
WOUNDED AT TREVILIAN
AND WINCHESTER; LATER
SECRETARY, U. S. MILITARY
SERVICE INSTITUTION
("Cavalry Editor")



PRIVATE J. E. GILMAN; LOST AN ARM AT
GETTYSBURG; COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF
G. A. R. 1910-11
("Grand Army of the Republic")



CAPT. F. Y. HEDLEY IN '64, AGE TWENTY;
LATER EDITOR AND AUTHOR OF
"MARCHING THROUGH GEORGIA"
("School of the Soldier," "Marching and Foraging")



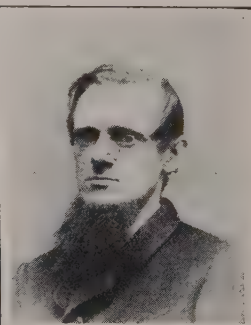
COL. W. C. CHURCH; LATER
EDITOR OF THE "ARMY AND
NAVY JOURNAL" AND AU-
THOR OF LIFE OF U. S. GRANT
("Grant")



T. S. C. LOWE, MILITARY BAL-
LOONIST IN THE PENINSULA
CAMPAIGN, 1862—THE
FIRST WAR AERONAUT
("Balloons")



CAPT. T. S. PECK; MEDAL OF
HONOR IN 1864; LATER
ADJUTANT-GENERAL
OF VERMONT
(Contributor of many rare
photographs)



COL. L. B. STEGMAN, WOUN-
DED AT CEDAR CREEK, GETTYS-
BURG, RINGGOLD, AND
PINE MOUNTAIN
(Consulting Editor)

WAR-TIME PORTRAITS OF FEDERAL SOLDIERS WHO CONTRIBUTED TO THE PHOTOGRAPHIC
HISTORY HALF A CENTURY LATER



COL. HILARY A. HERBERT; LATER MEMBER
OF CONGRESS AND SECRETARY
OF THE NAVY
("Losses in Battle")



LIEUT.-COL. J. W. MALLET; LATER
PROFESSOR OF CHEMISTRY,
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA
("Confederate Ordnance")



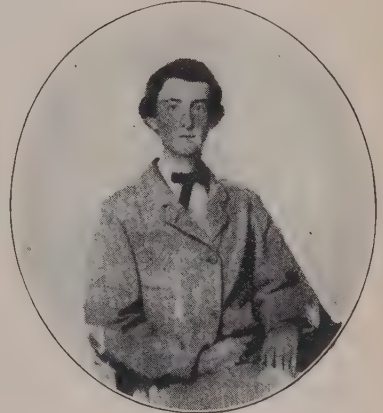
PRIVATE JOHN A. WYETH, IN '61, AT 16;
LATER ORGANIZER OF THE NEW
YORK "POLYCLINIC"
("Confederate Raids")



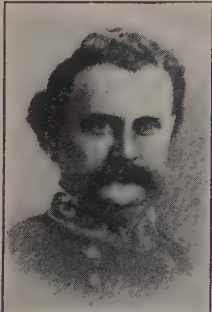
LIEUT. R. H. MCKIM IN '62; LATER RECTOR
CHURCH OF THE EPIPHANY, WASH-
INGTON, AND AUTHOR
("The Confederate Army")



CAPT. FREDERICK M. COLSTON;
ARTILLERY OFFICER
WITH ALEXANDER
("Memoirs of Gettysburg" and
Many Rare Photographs)



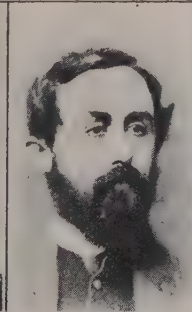
ALLEN C. REDWOOD, OF THE 55TH VIRGINIA,
WITH "STONEWALL" JACKSON; LATER
ARTIST AND AUTHOR
(Confederate Reminiscences; "Jackson")



BRIG.-GEN. M. J. WRIGHT;
LATER U. S. WAR
DEPT. AGENT
("Records of the War"
and Statistics)



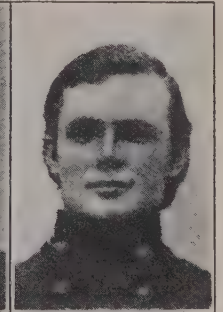
COL. D. G. MCINTOSH;
LATER ATTORNEY-
AT-LAW
("Confederate Artillery")



COL. T. M. R. TALCOTT;
LATER CIVIL EN-
GINEER
("Reminiscences of the
Confederate Engineers")



S. A. CUNNINGHAM;
LATER EDITOR "CONFED-
ERATE VETERAN"
("United Confederate
Veterans")



DEERING J. ROBERTS;
LATER EDITOR
"SOUTHERN PRACTI-
TIONER"
("Confederate Medical
Service")

WAR-TIME PHOTOGRAPHS OF CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS: CONTRIBUTORS TO THE
PHOTOGRAPHIC HISTORY

The third volume opens with a map of the theater of the campaigns in Georgia and the Carolinas, and a most interesting introduction by Major-General Frederick D. Grant, detailing the aims and purposes of the great General-in-Chief after his appointment as Lieutenant-General and assumption of the command of all the armies in the field, of which General McClellan was relieved in 1862. The necessity of one responsible military head had been apparent all through the struggle, and this President Lincoln again realized as indispensable to concentration and to obviate the shifting orders caused by the pressure of the impatient people of the North and members of Congress, who had but a limited knowledge and appreciation of the vital demands of the stupendous conflict. General Grant revived what was known as the anaconda plan, that is, to envelope the Confederate armies in the folds of the Union armies and by gradual contraction, keeping the separate forces of the Confederacy actively engaged, and unable to reinforce each other, either to crush the enemy in detail or so to narrow the circle of operations as to strike a decisive blow and end the war. The details of these movements are embraced in a series of admirable articles by the able historian, Henry W. Elson, embracing "The Battles of the Wilderness," "Spottsylvania," "Cold Harbor," "Drewry's Bluff," "Atlanta," "Sheridan on the Shenandoah Valley," "Charleston," "The Investment of Petersburg," "Sherman's Final Campaigns," "Nashville," "Fall of Petersburg," and "The Surrender at Appomattox." Captain Kilmer contributes a list of engagements from May, 1864, to May, 1865, and the photographic descriptions are by James Barnes.

The photographs covering this period are of especially thrilling interest, and impress the observer even more deeply with the awful carnage of these campaigns. The full-page portraits of Grant and Lee are to be noted. Indeed, a most valuable feature of the great work is the collection of portraits not only of all the prominent general officers on both sides, but also of thousands of others of lesser rank who contributed in a greater or less degree to the wonderful and unparalleled history of American valor.

CAVALRY OF BLUE AND GRAY

The cavalry of both armies is the theme of the fourth volume, edited by a prominent member of the cavalry arm, Theodore F. Rodenbough, Brigadier-General U. S. A.,

retired, whose armless sleeve is a memorial of his brave service. "Cavalry of the Civil War, its Evolution and Influence," is the initial chapter by him in which he traces the development of the cavalry from a headquarters guard or General's escort to the magnificent consolidated commands under such leaders as Sheridan, Stuart, Buford, Pleasanton, Fitz Lee, Merritt, Devin, Stanley, Wilson, Morgan, Grierson, Gregg, and others, which devastated vast territory and filled the country with alarm. The cavalry was fitly termed the eyes of the army, and its presence on both sides on critical occasions, notably at Gettysburg (Stuart), might have reversed the tide of battle. At the outset the South possessed a decided advantage over the North, because the Southern cavalymen had been trained from childhood in the saddle. The so-called Black Horse Cavalry at the First Bull Run appears to have inspired more terror to the retreating Union troops than any other arm, and wild were the stories of hairbreadth escapes. The Federal cavalry did not make a serious impression until the third year of the war. It is related of General Hooker that he playfully remarked that he had never seen a dead cavalryman, but this was before the organization of the troops into brigades, divisions, and a corps, when it became most formidable and covered itself with glory. General Rodenbough quotes Major McClellan, of the peerless cavalry leader General J. E. B. Stuart's staff, as saying:

During the last two years no branch of the army contributed so much to the overthrow of Lee's army as the cavalry, both that which operated in the Valley of Virginia and that which remained at Petersburg. But for the efficiency of this force it is safe to say that the war would have been indefinitely prolonged. From the time that the cavalry was concentrated into a corps until the close of the war, a steady progress was made in discipline. Nothing was spared to render this arm complete. Breech-loading guns of the most approved pattern were provided; horses and accoutrements were never wanting, and during the last year of the war Sheridan commanded as fine a body of troops as ever drew sabers.

General Rodenbough contributes also "Cavalry Leaders, North and South" and "Famous Charges." The remaining articles are "The Federal Cavalry, its Organization and Equipment," "Federal Raids and Expeditions in the East," and also in the West, "Partisan Rangers of the Confederacy," "Outposts, Scouts, and Couriers," "Cavalry Battles and Charges," and "Mounting the Cavalry of the Union Army,"—all by Charles D. Rhodes, Captain, General Staff, U. S. A.;

"The Confederate Cavalry in the East," by Holmes Conrad, Major in the Cavalry Corps of the Army of Northern Virginia; "Morgan's Christmas Raid," "The Destruction of General Rosecrans' Great Wagon Train," and "A Ride through the Federal Lines at Night,"—all by John Allan Wyeth, M.D., LL.D., Captain of Quirk's Scouts, Confederate States Army. The photographic descriptions are by Roy Mason.

Captain Rhodes aptly says that good cavalry cannot be made in a month or a year. The first year of the war the Confederate cavalry was superior in every way. The second year showed marked improvement in the Northern cavalry, "but with a still notable lack of confidence in itself. It was not until the third year of its organization and training that the Union cavalry really found itself and was able to vindicate its reputation in the eyes of those who in the preceding period were wont to sneeringly remark that 'no one ever sees a dead cavalryman.'"

Who that participated can ever forget that glorious morning in April, 1865, when the Cavalry Corps under Sheridan moved gayly out from City Point to destroy, if possible, the last open line of communication with Richmond, and how the next day, with nine thousand men fighting dismounted, we pressed the Confederates back into their works at Five Forks. It was the opening of the last great battle, and when Grant decided, in response to Sheridan's suggestion, to "push things," then was the beginning of the end, which, after a running fight of a week, culminated in the surrender at Appomattox. Foes became friends and the bloody conflict was practically over. All these and a thousand other thrilling experiences in the cavalry service are graphically detailed in the volume, and made the more impressive by the life-like scenes which the photographs present with absolute truthfulness, about which there can be no controversy. The cavalry was a gigantic organization, and its equipment, care, and brilliant services form the most interesting and romantic chapter in the great war history.

THE FORTS AND THE BIG GUNS—FEDERAL AND CONFEDERATE

Volume V is devoted to a description of the "Forts and Artillery," including also the Engineers' and Ordnance Departments. It is edited by Captain O. E. Hunt, U. S. A., Instructor in Modern Languages at West Point, and the contributors include Captain Hunt,

Lieutenant Frederick M. Colston, Ordnance Officer of Alexander's Battalion of Artillery, Longstreet's Corps C. S. A., Colonel T. M. R. Talcott, C. E., Commanding the Engineers of the Army of Northern Virginia, Colonel David Gregg McIntosh, C. S. A., and Lieutenant-Colonel J. W. Mallet, C. S. A., Superintendent of the Ordnance Laboratory of the Confederate States and later Professor of Chemistry in the University of Virginia. The importance of forts and improvised protection in the field, held at the outset in light esteem, developed as the war progressed, and the speed with which troops dug and delved even on the charging lines of battle was well-nigh marvelous.

No previous publication has described so fully this work of both Union and Confederate soldiers alike. The tide of battle was not infrequently turned by the rapidity with which these improvised defenses were constructed. The spade became a valuable and indispensable ally to the gun, and the soldier soon learned to appreciate that self-protection, as far as it was practicable, was no evidence of a lack of courage. Napoleon had long ago demonstrated the effectiveness of the artillery arm, and the Union forces were more quick to appreciate this than their Southern antagonists. How far the massed artillery at Gettysburg determined the Union success, is not an open question, although that arm under the magnificent direction of General Hunt was well met by the skilful handling of the one hundred and fifty guns of the Confederates by General Alexander. The close fighting at the Bloody Angle on the third day of the crucial battle attests the terrible efficiency of light artillery at close range.

The value of the pontoons, the speedy restoration of destroyed bridges and railroads and their rolling stock, the construction of forts and block-houses, form a most interesting feature and exhibit the ability of skilled artisans, who were to be found in the ranks of all the armies and particularly of those recruited in the North. The contents are both varied and interesting and comprise "Federal Artillery and Artillerymen," "Defending the National Capital," "The Ordnance Department of the Federal Army," "The Ammunition Used in the War," "Entrenchments and Fortifications," "Engineer Corps of the Federal Army," "Federal Military Railroads," and "Defending the Citadel of the Confederacy,"—all by Captain Hunt; "The Ordnance of the Confederacy," by Captain Hunt and Lieutenant-Colonel Mallet; "The Confederate Artillery," by Colonel McIntosh;

"Memories of Gettysburg" and "Reminiscences of the Confederate Engineer Service," by Colonel T. M. R. Talcott.

Maps of the defenses of Richmond and of Washington open and close the volume and the photographic descriptions are by Roy Mason and Colonel W. R. Hamilton, U. S. A., retired. There is the usual wealth of illustration, profoundly interesting and impressive.

THE NAVY'S WORK PORTRAYED

There is endless glorification of the army, and all of it well deserved, but the work of the navy is neither as well known nor widely appreciated as it should be. It is sufficient to say that, without the blockade, victory for the Union would have been greatly delayed if not indefinitely postponed. It is the province of Volume VI to give an enlightened view of the priceless services of this arm, not only in obstructing the ports to blockade runners, but in sea-fights unsurpassed in naval history. The world has its great marine heroes, but Farragut in heroic daring undoubtedly heads the list. The text of this volume is supplied by James Barnes, heretofore mentioned, the author of "David G. Farragut" and also of "Naval Actions of 1812," and other naval and historical works. The photographic descriptions are by Mr. Barnes and Robert Sloss. Rear Admiral F. E. Chadwick furnishes a most concise and interesting introduction. From it we gather that at the opening of the year 1861 the "whole steam navy of the United States . . . consisted of but twenty-nine ships." Five of these were laid up and only one was ever utilized. The blockade, therefore, was simply a paper one and it was not until near the close of the conflict that the ports throughout the South were almost completely sealed to the swift and audacious blockade runners.

The Admiral furnishes food for thought in the assertion that had proper energy been shown by the authorities at Washington to hold the forts on the Southern coast, there would have been no war. He claims that two hundred men at each fort would have been sufficient to secure them against any force of green recruits, and these disciplined soldiers could have been readily obtained by denuding the forts at the North of trained men whose places might have been filled with the militia. He believes that "had these (Southern) forts been occupied by Federal troops and had Sumter been properly reinforced, there can be little question that secession would have ended with the act of

South Carolina." . . . "Had the *Brooklyn* been sent, as President Buchanan, to his credit, be it said, intended and as had been first arranged, the secessionist battery would not have dared to fire upon the powerful man-of-war, or had it dared, the few guns of the battery or of all the improvised defenses, none of which had before fired a shot, would have been quickly silenced by the *Brooklyn's* guns; the ship would have occupied the harbor, Sumter would have been manned and provisioned, and Charleston Harbor would have been permanently in the hands of the Federal authorities." The answer to this is that the South was crazed and misled by specious hopes of recognition as a separate Confederacy and would have dared anything. It was best so, for the "irrepressible conflict" between freedom and slavery had to be fought out some time and then was as propitious a time as any.

The rest of the articles in this number, all by Mr. Barnes, are "The Organization of the Federal Navy," "The Organization of the Confederate Navy," "First Expeditions of the Federal Navy," "The Blockade," "The Birth of the Iron Clads," "The Most Famous American Naval Battle" (the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*); "The Most Daring Feat" (passing the forts at New Orleans); "Fighting on the Mississippi," "The Actions with the Forts," "Naval Actions along the Shores," "The Sea Life of '61," "The Confederate Cruisers and the *Alabama*," and "Naval Chronology, 1861-1865."

Mr. Barnes discloses further the weakness of our navy in 1861. There were but ninety ships, and of these only forty-two "were in any measure ready for active service." The rest were laid up in dock yards for repairs, and the startling fact follows, that "there were but two ships available to guard the entire Atlantic coast." But during the war the navy "rose to a force of 569 steam vessels, and over 50,000 seamen. There were over 7500 volunteer officers, taken chiefly from the merchant marine, whose occupation by reason of the Confederate cruisers was temporarily suspended. Although these privateers carried terror to United States merchantmen, the result was rather insignificant in its bearing upon the progress of the war, amounting to about \$10,000,000, which was subsequently repaid under the *Alabama* claims arbitration.

An important service has been rendered the navy by Mr. Barnes in presenting in statistics and in brilliant description the services and value of the sailors, whether engaged in

the tedious, enervating, and for the most part inglorious inactivity on the blockade or in the magnificent actions, chief of which were the capture of New Orleans and Mobile, which cleared the Mississippi and severed the Confederacy in twain. The entire expense of the navy during the four-years' war was "a little over \$314,000,000, or but 9.3 per cent. of the total cost of the war."

PRISON AND HOSPITAL LIFE PICTURED

There is much in the excitement of campaigning and camp life to compensate in some degree for the hardships and actual dangers, but there is no such compensation in prison life, to which hundreds of thousands on both sides of the line were subjected. It may be "sweet to die for one's country" but there is nothing attractive in being cooped up in cramped buildings or stockades, with nothing to do and oftentimes with little to eat and nothing to hope for but exchange or death. It is the saddest story of the unhappy contest. Next to it comes the suffering in the hospitals—notwithstanding the herculean efforts to provide the most modern appliances and surgical experience.

The narrative is aptly and impartially told in Volume VII, edited by Holland Thompson, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of History in the College of the City of New York, who contributes articles on "Prisoners of War," "Northern and Southern Prisons," "Exchange of Prisoners," "The Life of the Captured," "Soldiers who Escaped," "Treatment of Prisoners," "Provost Marshals," and "Private Agencies of Relief." The other articles comprising Part II are "The Army Surgeon and his Work," and "With the Ambulance Corps," by Edward L. Munson, Major in the Medical Department, U. S. A.; "Medical Service of the Confederacy," "The Surgeon in the Field," and "Permanent and General Hospitals,"—all by Deering J. Roberts, M.D., late Surgeon, Confederate States Army. An appendix contains the Cartel of July 22, 1862, "Personnel of the Federal Medical Department," "Union Surgeon Generals and their Work," and "Personnel of the Confederate Medical Department." The photographic descriptions are by Roy Mason.

In the treatment of the delicate topic of "Prisoners of War," Dr. Thompson aptly quotes an extract from Rhodes' "History of the United States," which is suggestive and cogent. He writes: "In this mass of material the man with a preconceived notion can

find facts to his liking. . . . In no part of the history of the Civil War is a wholesome skepticism more desirable, and nowhere is more applicable a fundamental tenet of historical criticism that all the right is never on one side and all the wrong on the other."

According to General F. C. Ainsworth, when Chief of the United States Record and Pension Office, the Union soldiers captured during the war numbered 211,411. Of these 16,668 were paroled on the field and 30,218 died in captivity. On the Confederate side 462,634 were captured, but this includes the armies which surrendered at the close of the war and are embraced in the 247,769 who were paroled. Those who died in captivity numbered 25,796. Unfortunately the records in Southern prisons were inaccurate and incomplete and those of several large prisons were lost or destroyed. On the other hand the records in the Northern hospitals and prisons were kept with as great accuracy as the daily morning reports of the troops in active service.

The fare and lodging of prisoners became a very serious problem to both sides. As the war progressed, the number of prisoners increased and the Federal Government was compelled to abandon its untenable position not to recognize the South as belligerents. Exchange of prisoners was made and continued until the last year of the war, when General Grant insisted that, as the war seemed likely to be one of extermination, to return 40,000 Confederate prisoners nearly all of whom were in condition to reinforce the depleted ranks of the enemy, was bad policy. It would restore to the South a great army with which to prolong the war. On the other hand our weakened and emaciated prisoners, when set free, were entirely unfitted for active service for months after their release, and many more thousands were entitled to their discharge by reason of the expiration of their term of service.

As the Southern supplies became reduced, it affected the armies in the field as well as the Federal prisoners and this accounts in a large degree for the privations, sufferings, and death which characterized especially the period after exchanges were suspended. At all times, Southern prisoners had more and better food to eat than their less fortunate Northern brethren and better quarters, though at times all the prisons were greatly overcrowded. There was, too, in some instances, inefficient management by poor or inexperienced commandants, and much privation was on several occasions caused by the

retaliatory measures projected by both governments. Besides, the extreme heat of the South, to which the Northern troops were unaccustomed, and the severe rigors of Northern winters, to which the thinly clad Southerners were strangers, increased the terrors and the mortality of those in confinement.

In the Southern prisons medical attendance and medicines were insufficient and thousands who might have survived, died from this prolific cause. Of all the prisons in both sections, Fort Warren alone escaped complaint. There under the paternal and benign influence of Colonel (later General) Justin Dimmick, the commander, the conditions rendered the lives of those restrained of their liberty as comfortable as was possible under the circumstances. The two prisons which earned the worst reputation were at Andersonville, Georgia, where the mortality reached 33 per cent., and Camp Douglas, Illinois, where it registered 10 per cent. in a single month. The picture is lurid, no matter from what point it is viewed, and as an object lesson, this alone should discourage all who are ambitious to seek fame at the cannon's mouth, and abolish war forever between civilized peoples.

Nor is the story of the hospitals much less gruesome. Until the Christian soldier "Stonewall" Jackson set the example, captured surgeons were treated as prisoners of war and to avoid the horrors of prison life these non-combatants, whose sole duty it was to alleviate suffering to the wounded, without regard to the color of the uniform, were forced to leave their charges to suffer or die unattended. This humane provision was subsequently approved by Generals McClellan and Lee, although later it was temporarily interrupted. The Geneva Convention later made this status imperative in all future wars. The presence of the surgeons on the firing line is attested by the number of casualties, a record of which on the Northern side has been preserved. Thirty-two were killed, eighty-three were wounded, and four died in prison. Besides these, seven died of yellow fever, nine by accident, three of cholera, and 271 of other diseases incident to camp life.

The rapid strides in medicine and especially in surgery since the war must not be overlooked. Sanitation, and notably the providing of pure water, was scantily carried out and "nothing in the way of antiseptics was provided. The cleanliness of wounds, except in respect to the gross forms of foreign matter, was regarded as of little or no importance," says Dr. Munson. While the North-

ern surgeons and hospitals were plentifully supplied with proper medicaments and the most advanced surgical instruments, the South was in sore distress for good tools, and especially for the indispensable quinine and morphine, and had to find inferior substitutes in medicinal herbs. All sorts of schemes were devised to replenish at times the almost exhausted stock. Blockade-running was one source, raids by the cavalry and captures of poorly protected medical wagons another. Forrest alone in his memorable and devastating raid captured three army wagons containing medical supplies estimated to be worth at least \$150,000 in gold. Smuggling was another source of recoupment. Dr. Roberts tells how "many petticoats were quilted in the shadow of the dome of the Capitol at Washington and in other Northern cities, worn through the lines by Southern ladies and relieved of their valuable padding of quinine and morphia in Richmond."

This volume will be especially attractive to the medical fraternity, who will probably deduct from its perusal the conclusion that, under conditions as they exist to-day, the mortality would have been reduced one-fourth, if not by a larger percentage.

THE SOLDIER'S DAILY LIFE IN MANY PHASES

Volume VIII treats especially of "Secret Service" and the more minute details of soldier life. It embraces an introduction by Charles King, Brigadier General, U. S. V., and well-known author, on "The Two Practical Problems of the General," and other articles by him on "Marshaling the Federal Volunteers," "Boys Who Made Good Soldiers," and "With the Veterans," besides contributions on "The Business Side of War-Making," by William B. Shaw, "Glimpses of the Confederate Army," by Randolph H. McKim, D.D., and late A.D.C. in the Confederate Service; "The Confederate of '61" and "The Confederate in the Field," by Allen C. Redwood of the 55th Virginia Regiment, C. S. A.; "The School of the Soldier" and "Marches of the Federal Armies," by Fenwick Y. Hedley, Brevet Captain 32nd Illinois Vols., "The Secret Service of the Federal Armies," by George H. Casamajor, "The Secret Service of the Confederacy," by Captain John W. Headley, of the Confederate Army, "The Signal Service" and "Military Telegraph," by Major General A. W. Greely, U. S. A., and a personal "Reminiscence on the Balloons with the Army of the Potomac," by T. S. C. Lowe, who introduced

and made balloon observations on the Peninsula for the Union Army. The photographic descriptions are by Roy Mason and Col. Lewis R. Stegman.

The difficulties of campaigning in the enemy's country were greatly increased by the absence of accurate information and intelligent loyal guides. The labor of gaining reliable information fell upon Northern scouts and spies, and in the earlier years of the conflict, the organization was imperfect and unreliable. How and what was done are here fully described together with pictures showing how it was done and the prominent men and women who did it. Rhode Island was the first to show special honor to this branch by erecting in July last, a statue in Providence of Major Young, chief of Sheridan's scouts.

In this volume are also a number of photographs of militia regiments which came to the rescue at the opening of the war and twice at least thereafter, among them the then and still famous Seventh of New York City, which was the first New York regiment to reach Washington after President Lincoln's call for troops in April, 1861. It later furnished 606 officers to the volunteer force. There are depicted also the 8th, 12th and 71st, which lost some men at the first battle of Bull Run, the 4th New Jersey, and others.

In no other published work, so far as the writer is informed, are the subjects treated in the eighth volume of the "Photographic History" so fully or authoritatively set forth.

POETRY AND ELOQUENCE OF THE WAR

Such a comprehensive work would have been incomplete had it omitted to treat of the songs and notable addresses inspired by the great struggle. It is true that many of the songs are little more than doggerel, but they awakened the sentiment that "makes the whole world kin." A very large part are now seldom seen or heard and many have passed into obscurity. The most popular have been kept alive by the vocal organs of the old veterans who will continue to enliven their camp fires, the post meetings of the Grand Army of the Republic, and the camp associations of the United Confederate Veterans, so long as there are enough left to constitute a chorus. It is the province of Volume IX to embalm for future generations the poetry and eloquence of Blue and Gray and to perpetuate the likenesses of the authors whose words and music served to keep patriotism at fever heat. It seems almost anomalous that the young sol-

dier, even on the eve of a great battle, was wont to indulge in sport and joke and song. There was something in his profession that enabled him to live for the day only. His sole responsibility was to obey orders and do his duty; the Government did the rest. Were it otherwise, duty would have been an unceasing burden and the tented field a dreary monotony. The volume is edited by Dudley H. Miles, Ph.D., sometime University Fellow in Comparative Literature, Columbia University, with foreword by William P. Trent, LL.D., Professor of English in the same institution, with an Appendix,—"Songs of the War Days," edited by Jeanne Robert Foster. Some of the sub-titles are "The Spirit of Nationality," "Brotherhood," "Separation and Reunion," "The Heritage from the Nation's Heroes," "The Humor of the Grimmiest Profession," "Sweethearts and Wives," "Scenes from Soldier Life," and "Lincoln." Especially noteworthy are the portraits of Oliver Wendell Holmes, Sidney Lanier, Charles Sumner, the eloquent Grady of Atlanta, Bret Harte, Julia Ward Howe, James Russell Lowell, Walt Whitman, and Richard Watson Gilder; and also of the President of the Confederacy taken before, during and after his occupation of that office.

PERSONNEL OF BOTH ARMIES

The tenth and concluding volume exhibits no diminution in interest and attractiveness. It is especially rich in its abundance of portraits and the wonder grows how it has been possible to collect the hundreds of likenesses which enrich the volume. "It is the purpose," writes Mr. R. S. Lanier, "to represent in some coherent form the men of the Civil War. The first three volumes, devoted to narrative in the largest sense, and to scenes, could present portraits only of officers and men connected with particular operations. Each of the next six volumes, occupied as it is with a special phase of war-time activity—cavalry, artillery, prisons and hospitals, or the like—naturally emphasizes in its personal mentions and portrayals the men of the respective specialties." This volume is therefore devoted to the consideration of the personnel of the Union and Confederate armies.

"That there are limitations," he continues, "is evident. The nature of the work decides its scope to a large degree. The war-time camera has been the arbiter. Here and there it caught the Colonel as well as the General, the Captain as well as the Colonel, and the

private as well as the Captain." And we fully endorse the statement that "its work was well balanced, marvelously so, and the results are before the readers of the 'Photographic History.'"

Here are presented admirable biographical sketches of General U. S. Grant, by Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel William C. Church, his close friend for many years; of General Robert E. Lee, by William P. Trent, Professor of English Literature in Columbia University; of General W. T. Sherman, by Walter L. Fleming, Professor of History in the Louisiana State University; of Lieutenant-General Thomas J. (Stonewall) Jackson, by Allen C. Redwood of the Stonewall Brigade; and articles on "Losses in the Battles of the Civil War—Their Meaning," by Colonel Hilary A. Herbert, C. S. A., ex-Secretary of the Navy; "Battles and Casualties of the Civil War," by General Marcus J. Wright, "The Grand Army of the Republic," by John E. Gilman, late Commander-in-Chief, G. A. R.; "The Federal Armies," "The Corps and their Leaders," "The Confederate Armies and Generals," "The Organization of the Veterans," and "The United Confederate Veterans,"—this last by Samuel A. Cunningham, proprietor of the *Confederate Veteran*. The work concludes with a complete roster of general officers, both Union and Confederate, and an index. The photographic descriptions are by Roy Mason and Captain George L. Kilmer.

THE CAMERA'S CONTRIBUTION TO HISTORY

In this review the effort has been to make as clear and concise a summary as practicable of this superb publication. With rare exceptions, which, with occasional errors, should and doubtless will be eliminated in a future edition, the story has been told in the spirit of the martyred Lincoln, "with malice toward none and charity for all." It has not been possible here to do full justice to all, editors, historians, and co-laborers who have contributed to this work of incalculable value. Special tribute is paid by the editors to Captain George L. Kilmer, U. S. V., a life-long devotee to the literature and records of the Civil War, to Mr. George H. Casamajor, historical editor, for his painstaking research and accuracy, and to Mr. Herbert T. Wade, as literary editor, who has supervised the development of the text to "seeing the pages through the press."

This great work is a most worthy successor and supplement to the "Battles and Leaders

of the Civil War," published a quarter of a century ago. The latter publication has always been recognized by history makers as a most useful record for reference. It made no attempt to treat of prisons, the medical, ordnance, and quartermaster's departments, the organization of armies, the secret service, and it necessarily omitted ten thousand details presented in the "Photographic History" which will be found even more valuable as an aid to the future George Bancroft who is yet to write a comprehensive and exhaustive history of the great war.

It was feared by some that such a work would tend to keep alive the animosities of the war. The contrary is true. The impartial description by soldiers of both armies, North and South, serves rather to excite admiration of the heroic valor which characterized the soldiers of both sections. For there was no difference in their fighting qualities. The South had the wisdom to utilize at once its West Point officers in positions of high rank and responsibility, while the Federal Government, for at least two years, mistakenly held the regular army together as a unit, while volunteers, officers and men, were learning the art of war. This accounts in some degree for the frequent reverses of these two years, which did not result from any lack of valor on the part of the rank and file. In the summer of 1862, Henry Ward Beecher was in London, where he was twitted by an Englishman with the non-success of the Union forces. Said he, "Mr. Beecher, your Northern troops do not seem able to conquer their Southern brethren?" Mr. Beecher, a little nettled, replied, "No, sir, but you see they are not fighting Europeans; they are fighting Americans."

The REVIEW OF REVIEWS Company has earned lasting gratitude in issuing such a publication, in which all subjects are handled with freedom and, as already stated, without acrimony. The photographs introduce the reader to the "innermost circle" of army life, and he comprehends more and more the glories, the vicissitudes, and the horrors of war. To lovers of history it is a fascinating pictorial and literary feast. To the generations born since the great struggle it opens a most attractive field, while the veterans of '61 to '65 with it will live over again the memories of the days when, shoulder to shoulder, they stood together, the South in defense of what her sons believed to be right, and the North for the preservation of the Union, which has grown to be the most powerful nation on earth.

FEDERALISM IN CANADA AND IN THE UNITED STATES

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE

(Formerly United States Senator from Indiana)

THAT Canada is a nation in the making and in the very beginning of that making, you may see everywhere. Indeed, there is not one phase of Canadian life and activity that does not tell the story of nation-building. But nowhere does this so force itself upon you as when you study the forming of the Canadian Government, and especially its development of a national, constitutional, and judicial system.

CANADA'S FEDERAL SYSTEM

To make it plain to American readers, it should be explained that the various provinces of the Dominion of Canada correspond to the States of the American Republic; and the general Government of the Dominion corresponds to our national Government. But here, almost, the analogy ends. Almost, but not quite.

For while these provinces have their provincial parliaments and provincial governments and the Dominion has its Dominion Parliament and Dominion Government, just as with us, yet even at this dawning of the Canadian nationality the Dominion Government already has broader national powers than we Americans have achieved in a hundred years; broader than we are likely to secure for ourselves in many a decade to come.

THE DOMINION A NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

The statesmen who drew the plan of the Canadian nation had studied our own history very closely and noted the disastrous results of the doctrine of States' rights. It is worth mentioning that the Canadian constitution was framed only two years after our Civil War closed. So these Canadian nation projectors had before them an object lesson of battle and desolation framed in a flaming rim of war.

At the very beginning, then, the Canadian constitution made the Dominion Government a truly national government. Canadian statesmen saw to it that the welfare of the Canadian people as a whole should not be

prevented by any lack of authority on the part of Canada's national congress. They took infinite pains that no Canadian province (state) should interfere with the progress of the entire Canadian people. The American idea that a State is sovereign with respect to the nation on any possible matter affecting the general welfare, to the Canadians is absurd.

For example, if we in the United States try to pass a law through Congress to protect the morals of our people by prohibiting lottery tickets from interstate commerce, it is resisted at once upon the ground that it interferes with the "rights of our States."

If the Beef Trust, with packing houses located in a State, prepares and sells diseased meat to the people of the whole country and we try to prevent this by a national law, we hear learned arguments of the "constitutional lawyers" about this being an infringement on the rights of the States.

Scarcely a single evil has been practised on the American people by selfish interests which when attacked in our national Congress has not hid itself behind the American doctrine of "States' rights."

Just this fundamental defect, as Canadian statesmen believe it to be, was conspicuously before their eyes when the British North America Act, which is the Canadian constitution, was drawn. The conflict of the national idea and the States' rights idea, which had culminated in the most destructive war of history, was on their minds and consciences. And they resolved that Canada never should have such a desolating experience.

So the Canadian national government is made supreme to a degree we Americans never can achieve until our whole framework of State and national government is rearranged and rebuilt.

CANADIAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS RESTRICTED TO LOCAL ACTIVITIES

It is said that all the powers not expressly delegated to our national Government are reserved to the States or to the people.

Thus at the outset our national Government is limited. And so during the century and a quarter of our existence, whenever the Government of the whole American people has tried to do anything for the good of the whole American people, the effort has succeeded only after long-drawn-out litigation and desperate battle.

But in Canada this idea is exactly reversed. The Canadian national government can do anything which is not expressly and in specified terms given to the states (provinces) of the Canadian union. And the things which these Canadian states or provinces can do are very few and purely local, such as direct taxation for raising provincial revenue; or borrowing money on the exclusive credit of the provinces for provincial purposes; or the management and sale of public lands belonging to the provinces; hospitals, asylums and the like; purely local works within and affecting only the provinces themselves; the incorporation of purely provincial or state companies; the solemnization of marriage within the provinces; property and civil rights within the provinces.

In short, the states of the Canadian Nation cannot do anything except such things as are essentially local and private.

THE WIDE FIELD OF NATIONAL LEGISLATION

But Canada's national government and congress (Parliament) can do absolutely anything except those few things which in terms are assigned to the Canadian states. To make this clear, Canada's constitution specifies twenty-nine special subjects of legislation and government over which Canada's national government is paramount and supreme, such as the regulation of trade and commerce; the raising of money by any mode or system of taxation; navigation and shipping; currency and banking; bills of exchange and promissory notes; naturalization of aliens; marriage and divorce; criminal law, etc.

These are merely examples. But because these twenty-nine subjects are specifically and in terms set out as belonging exclusively to the Canadian national government and congress, you must not think that other subjects not thus specifically described are denied to Canada's national government.

These specified subjects *are only by way of illustration*—they are set forth so that there cannot be any possibility of mistake about it. Absolutely all other subjects which are not *in express terms* given to the states of the

Canadian Union are given to Canada's national government.

Pretty broad powers, you will say. "Why," said a constitutional American lawyer to me in discussing this question, "why," said he, "the Socialists do not ask any more than that in their program for nationalizing, as they term it, the American Government."

PROVINCIAL LAWS SUBJECT TO DOMINION AUTHORITY

But the effort of the fathers of the Canadian constitution to make the Canadian people a nation in fact as well as in name did not stop there. For every law passed by a Canadian state (province) must be laid before the Canadian national government. And the national government can approve or disapprove that act—"disallow" it as is the term of the Canadian law.

And "disallow" it how? And by whom? By the Canadian national Parliament or congress? You would think so. But not at all.

Any law passed by a Canadian state can be "disallowed"—that is, vetoed and rendered null and void—by the Governor in Council, as the technical term is, that is by the Premier and his cabinet. For the advice of the Premier and his cabinet as a practical matter must be followed by the Governor-General, who represents the Crown.

It is just as if with us a State law had to be laid before the President and his cabinet to be approved or disapproved by them.

As a matter of fact, of course, the Canadian national government very seldom "disallows"—that is, vetoes—a law passed by any Canadian state. For example, out of seven or eight thousand laws passed by the provinces of Canada, only about forty, I believe, have been disallowed by the national government.

The theory seems to be developing that provincial legislation shall be approved unless it directly conflicts with a national policy of Canada as a whole or interferes with the interests of the British Empire.

For example, two or three statutes of British Columbia against the Japanese were disallowed by the Canadian national government because they infringed upon the British treaty with Japan; and the consensus of the opinion of the Canadian people approved this action of the national government.

Again, as I have shown elsewhere, Manitoba passed several statutes which were in direct conflict with the Canadian national law which vitalized its contract with the Canadian syn-

dicate after the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Time after time the national government disapproved these statutes of the Province of Manitoba. Therefore these local laws of Manitoba were nullified. They ceased to exist.

In this instance, of course, Manitoba finally won her point, but not in the least by the legal effect of her local statutes. The sheer justice of Manitoba's contention on the railway question, the vast economic forces back of that contention, and, therefore, in the final analysis, the opinion of the Canadian people forced the Canadian national government on the one hand, and the Canadian Pacific syndicate on the other hand, to a settlement of this vexed question. The national government paid the Canadian Pacific syndicate to relinquish the "monopoly clause" against which Manitoba had so justly fought.

EVEN LOCAL WORKS MAY BE SUBJECT TO NATIONAL CONTROL

And this is not all. As we have seen, the few and local powers given to the provinces or states of Canada relate to local works and undertakings exclusively within the provinces. Even over these the Canadian national government has absolute power, if privately owned.

Suppose, for example, a Canadian state legislature authorizes and assumes control over some privately owned and purely local work exclusively within its own boundaries, as a railway. Suppose now that the national government thinks this work should be under national instead of state authority and control. All that Canada's national congress (Parliament) has to do is to declare that that work "is for the general advantage of Canada," and instantly that exclusively local work becomes a subject for national control and legislation.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNORS AND JUDGES APPOINTED BY DOMINION GOVERNMENT

Nor does the nationalizing of Canada's government stop there. The governor of a Canadian state (the lieutenant-governor, as he is called) is appointed by Canada's Governor-General—in reality by the Premier and his ministers who at the time happen to be in power. And the same power that appoints the governor of a Canadian state can remove him, but of course only for cause.

More important still, the judges of every court in Canada, whether state or national,

are appointed by Canada's national government, excepting justices of the peace. And they are appointed for life. The salaries of these judges and state governors all are fixed and paid by the national government.

Although presiding over state (provincial) courts, the judges yet are national officers. And the state governors are national officers, also, although their limited powers and duties are confined of course to the provinces or states of which they are governors.

Here comes in a curious affair. While the Canadian national government appoints all the judges throughout the whole Dominion, yet the provinces (states) determine the jurisdiction and power of these judges. They say what these judges may or may not do. They settle the question of the organization of courts—sheriffs, clerks, and other court officers. More than this, these Canadian provinces or states create these offices. That is, the Parliament or legislature of a Canadian province or state passes a law creating the office of this judge or that and determines its jurisdiction or power. But the national government appoints the judges to fill those offices and execute those powers.

THE SUPREME COURT OF CANADA

Do not think that the Canadian province or state creates all judicial offices. The national government can create courts of its own. It has created the Supreme Court of Canada. This is the final court of appeal. But—and here comes in Canadian nationality again—the Dominion or national government alone can determine the right of appeal to the Supreme Court of Canada.

This Supreme Court of Canada, which is destined to become the determinative power in the building of the Canadian nation, consists of six members. And here comes what to us Americans will seem a startling fact. There are nine provinces of Canada. Yet in this Supreme Court of Canada, composed of six members, two of these must come from the Province of Quebec. And this is provided in the fundamental law.

At first this seems most unjust and unnatural. But when one comes to study Canadian history and the composition of the Canadian Union, this apparent injustice disappears. For it seems that in Quebec the civil law prevails. We have in the United States the exact counterpart of this in the case of Louisiana.

So, because to most English-read lawyers, the civil law is unknown and because in

Canada the civil law, which in its modern manifestation is the Code Napoleon, must be mingled with the common law, which is purely English, it is exceedingly wise that two members of the Supreme Court should come from Quebec.

The filaments of nationalism run through the execution of the judgments of this Supreme Court of Canada; for they must be executed by the sheriffs or other appropriate officers within a province. And these latter, for this purpose, are specially made national officers as well as provincial officers.

THE PRIVY COUNCIL

There is yet one other court of appeal. I mean the Privy Council of the British Empire. The curious origin and ramified composition of this institution involves extended statement. Waiving details and technicalities, it may be said that on matters of law the Privy Council is the Judicial Committee of that body. To it any litigant in Canada can appeal from any court as a matter of right, if it involves so much as fifteen hundred dollars.

This Privy Council, sitting in London, can give leave to appeal in any case, whether it involves fifteen hundred dollars or fifteen cents. This would seem to be a very unjust and autocratic procedure. But it does not so appear as the matter has worked out in actual practice.

In the early days of the Canadian national government, as we now know it, some twenty cases were decided by the Supreme Court of Canada. These twenty cases involved very profound constitutional, or, rather, institutional questions. The Privy Council sitting in London reversed the decisions of the Supreme Court of Canada in these cases.

The fact that these reversals by the Privy Council in England of the decisions of Canada's Supreme Court met with no criticism in Canada, but general acceptance from her people, seems to justify the law which provided this as a super-ultimate court of last resort.

EXERCISE OF THE VETO POWER

I mentioned the fact that Canada's national government—the Governor in Council—can veto any act of any Canadian State or province; but as a matter of practice the national government seldom does this. If the national government has any doubt about

its duty, it lets the provincial or state law stand and leaves it to the parties interested to fight it out in the courts.

For example, there is nothing in the Canadian constitution to protect what we call "vested rights" or interests. Nor is there any such limitation in the constitution of any Canadian state or province. With us in America, a charter once granted by the municipality, state or nation is a contract. This co-called contract with us cannot be violated.

But in Canada there is no such thing. Either the Parliament (legislature) of any province (state) or the national government itself can revoke such a franchise and there are no "ifs" and "ands" about it.

Or suppose in some other way that some state or province passes a law which interferes with vested or property rights; and several times just this has been done.

In a very flagrant case the national government probably would veto this state or provincial law; but ordinarily it would leave the whole subject to be fought out by the parties interested in the appropriate courts. So we see how Canada's judicial system is interlaced with the vast power of the national government to veto any possible state or provincial law.

CONTROL OF CORPORATIONS

Now we come to a great question which Canada must face very soon—the question of corporations.

The Canadian national government can charter any corporation for any purpose. Also the provinces (or states) can charter a corporation, but only for purely local operation. But not only can the national government charter any corporation for any purpose but it alone can charter some which are exclusive, such as banking, for example. These exclusive ones the provinces cannot charter.

Also it appears that the Canadian national government has exclusive authority to charter and also to control any corporations which do business in more than two provinces, or which extend beyond one province.

And note this again: If the Dominion Government declares that any work or business conducted by any person or corporation, if "for the general advantage of Canada," that person or corporation thereafter comes under the exclusive authority of the Canadian national Parliament and government.

UNLIMITED POWERS OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Let us return now to the vast and all but supreme powers assigned to Canada's national government. In exercising these powers there absolutely are no "constitutional limitations" on Canada's national congress or Parliament such as we Americans are familiar with.

Canada's Parliament can pass any law it pleases; and, unless it is upon one of the few subjects given specifically and in terms to the states and provinces of the Canadian Union, no court can declare that law unconstitutional or invalid.

For example, for years we have had a great agitation about an income tax. One was passed, taken to our Supreme Court, and declared unconstitutional. It is impossible for any such question to come before the Supreme Court of Canada. The only question there would be whether or not it is a good thing to have an income tax. If the Canadian national Parliament passed an income tax it would be the law and could not be overthrown.

Again in America we have had multitudes of decisions and vast and vexing agitation concerning the power of Congress to regulate trade and commerce. In Canada the power of her national congress is absolute and exclusive over inter-provincial (state) commerce and even over trade within a province if Parliament declares it to be "for the general advantage of Canada."

REGULATING QUARANTINE, TRADE, AND COMMERCE IN GENERAL

For a hundred years each one of our States maintained its own quarantine system; and, indeed, does so to-day. Of course this is perfectly absurd; for if one State maintains a good quarantine and a neighboring State does not, yet yellow fever or any other pest entering the ports of another State passes over the invisible boundary and slays the people of the neighboring States.

This fact, of course, after a hundred years, has forced us to establish a curious joint State and national quarantine system.

But in Canada there is a single authority over this question of life and death—the authority of Canada's national government.

Or take banking. We have our State banks and our national banks. But in Canada the whole question of the incorporation of banks is solely a national matter—as much so as currency and coinage.

Again—and here we see the influence of our Civil War in the framing of Canada's constitution—the Canadian national government has the power to issue paper money. Of course it may be said that the decision of the Supreme Court in the legal tender cases has given this power to our national government. But it took the imperiled life of the Republic to do this for us.

Another absurdity peculiar to our American system is that each State has its own laws on bills of exchange and promissory notes; so that a bill of exchange issued in Illinois is a foreign bill of exchange in New York. There are or may be as many different laws governing promissory notes and bills of exchange as there are States in the Republic. Every business man and lawyer knows that this is sheer nonsense—an anachronism inherited from our colonial past.

In Canada the national Parliament alone can pass laws concerning these indispensable vehicles of business. There is one law concerning promissory notes and bills of exchange in Nova Scotia on the Atlantic Ocean and exactly the same law in British Columbia on the Pacific Ocean.

And precisely the same thing is true and for the same reasons of the subject of interest. In our own country one State may say that a lender may charge 6 per cent., in another State 8 per cent. may be charged; and I suppose at the present moment there are at least fifteen or twenty different rates of interest made legal by State laws throughout the United States.

In Canada this whole subject is a national matter. The Dominion Parliament alone can pass on the subject of interest. It is precisely as if in our own country no law could be passed upon the subject of interest except by our national Congress.

This fact shows how supreme Canada's national government is in another curious aspect; for the Canadian Parliament can make any law it passes absolute, and rigidly apply it to the whole country from ocean to ocean and from the lakes to the frozen seas; or it can provide that any such general law shall have local application.

LIQUOR AND CRIMINAL LAW

Take the subject of temperance legislation. With us that is a matter exclusively for our States. In Canada, Parliament could to-morrow, if it pleased, make a general liquor law for the entire Dominion.

Perhaps the best illustration of all is

criminal law. Of course, as all of us know, with the exception of counterfeiting, piracies, and felonies on the high seas and offenses against the law of nations, our American Congress is given no power to pass laws concerning crimes.

That is a subject with which our States alone can deal. So what may be a crime in Delaware may not be a crime in New Jersey; or what may be a crime in Massachusetts and Connecticut may not be a crime in Rhode Island, between the two. And so on among all of our States.

But in Canada whatever is a crime in Prince Edward Island in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence is also a crime in Vancouver Island at the head of Puget Sound. Every person in Canada knows just where he is and what he may expect when he commits any offense.

There is a very curious and vague exception to this in what are known as "provincial crimes." It appears that while provinces cannot declare what crimes are, yet they may fix penalties for the purpose of enforcing any provincial law.

These illustrations will be sufficient to show you how great are the powers of Canada's national government compared with ours. It is the most important fact in Canada's future—a fact literally freighted with destiny. This and her system of responsible Parliamentary government by political parties are the two mighty and enduring pillars upon which the entire political system of Canada rests.

A SYSTEM THAT WORKS

Indeed, these two facts may be said to constitute the whole of that system. That they (except perhaps the appointment of judges for life) will result in good for the Canadian people, no student can for a moment doubt. Already they have resulted in good. Their simplicity and effectiveness—their reliance in the end upon the intelligence and conscience of the whole people—even now are apparent everywhere.

Thus you see that Canada's national government is national indeed. If any one were to arise in the United States Senate and suggest that we adopt for our national government so much as a fraction of the powers fundamentally belonging to Canada's national

government, all of us know the horror that would be vociferously expressed by certain leaders of both parties at such an extension of "federal power."²

Immediately these men would try to make us believe that the republic is at an end and liberty dead. Yet Canada seems to be getting along very well with just such a system, and, of course, as everybody knows, Canada's judicial and governmental system is very much restricted compared with that of the United Kingdom itself. And does not everybody know that these very men who so denounce every extension of national power in the United States in the very next breath point to England as the model of conservative law?

THE PEOPLE HAVE THE FINAL SAY

When Canada's population shall have become sufficiently numerous for Canada to have a national **public opinion**, the simplicity and unity of her constitutional system will save her from the gravest of troubles which have beset us in the past, are vexing us to-day, and are sure to cause us future storm and tempest.

In Canada there never can be any question over the power of her national congress to pass any law to prevent the exploiting of her people by selfish interests on the one hand, or to advance the welfare of Canada's millions on the other hand.

Think of the list of subjects on which we need national laws, because our State laws cannot or do not reach the evil; and yet over which, a certain type of American lawyer tells us, that our national Congress has no authority, no power. Canada's constitution furnishes no such refuge. The Canadian Parliament can pass any law which the welfare of the whole Canadian people requires.

In short, it is for Canada's people to determine what is best for them—their statesmen can give no "constitutional limitations" of any kind as an excuse for not writing the people's demands into law.

This, combined with the most effective of "recalls," which is the heart of Canada's system of responsible party government, makes this new nation at once the most popular and national government on earth.

INDUSTRIAL COURTS

BY HELEN L. SUMNER

THE recent labor war in Great Britain brings to the front again the persistent problem of how to secure and maintain industrial peace. At the same time it emphasizes the fundamental fact that the basis of all war is the sense of injustice against which there is no legal remedy. The belief that the American colonies were unjustly taxed and that they could not secure a fair hearing before the British Government, led to the Revolution. In the same way the belief of the workingmen that they were unfairly treated in the wage bargain, and that the legal remedy supposed to have been obtained in the Conciliation Act of 1907 was so slow and ineffective in its action as to be worse than useless, led to the upheaval in England. Sudden as this strike appeared, moreover, the general sense of injustice in which it originated and which caused its wild-fire spread from industry to industry, has long been smoldering, fed by a thousand small disputes, many of them probably personal and all individually petty. Gradually, however, these small disputes have helped to roll up the great common grievance which finally broke out into collective resistance. The failure of the conciliation law is reputed to have been the chief cause of the strike. If, however, there had existed in England an impartial judicial tribunal empowered to settle minor disputes promptly, as they arose, it is probable that industrial war could have been averted.

THE WORKINGMAN BEFORE THE LAW

These minor disputes, which are at the bottom of most of the ill-feeling in industrial relations and which, like the steady dripping of water, are capable of wearing away the firmest stone of industrial betterment,—welfare work, profit-sharing, or any other system,—fall naturally into two classes. The first contains all disputes relative to the formation of the labor contract and the second all disputes relative to its execution. Written law has little bearing upon the first class of disputes, but every civilized country has legislation to regulate the execution of labor contracts. Anglo-Saxon countries, however, forgetful of the fact that there is no bitterness like that of the man who feels, rightly or

wrongly, that he has the law on his side, but that there is another power greater than law, have given little or no attention to the settlement of the second class of disputes. It has been taken for granted that, in the labor contract, as in other contracts, either side can easily secure the enforcement of the law through the ordinary courts.

In actual practice, however, what means of redress has a workingman who believes, for example, that his work has been unfairly measured and that, therefore, his employer has not paid him as much as he has fairly earned under their agreement? He may, of course, sue his employer for the balance of his wages. But to do this he is obliged, not only to submit to a nerve-racking and time-frittering delay in the settlement of his case, but also to hire a lawyer and incur fees out of all proportion to the amount of his loss. Wages are usually paid at short intervals and in comparatively small sums and, as a result, a dispute rarely arises which justifies recourse to such dilatory and expensive legal machinery. Seventy-five years ago the workingmen of the United States demanded vociferously a simpler and less expensive system of legal procedure. Little, however, has been done to bring law, as administered by the courts, within the reach of the poor but independent toiler. The workingman, therefore, who feels that he has been unjustly treated, in ninety cases, and perhaps in ninety-nine cases, out of a hundred, pockets his loss, real or fancied, and at the same time lays by for future use a stock of bitterness of spirit and hatred of his employer. Such workingmen furnish henceforth a breeding ground for industrial strife.

SPECIAL COURTS TO DEAL WITH LABOR DISPUTES

Many European countries, however, in order to give both employers and workingmen the means of quick and cheap settlement of such disputes, have established industrial courts. These courts act exclusively in cases which arise between employers and workingmen by reason of the labor contract. They were first organized in France in 1806 under a decree of Napoleon. Within the last few years, however, the French system has under-

gone radical changes which have adapted it to modern industrial conditions. The plan, moreover, has been adopted with variations in Belgium, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Switzerland. Three years ago even backward Spain passed a law authorizing the establishment of industrial courts. In France, in 1906, there were 164 such courts, which handled 45,834 cases. The five sections of the Paris court alone settled in 1909 some 24,500 disputes. In Germany, in 1908, there were 469 courts, which handled 112,281 cases, and of these over 14,000 were settled by the Berlin court alone, in its eight sections. The number of courts constantly increases but there is said to be a decrease, where the system has been long in operation, in the number of complaints. This decrease is accounted for in part by the increasing standardization of labor conditions and in part by the growing knowledge and understanding of the laws,—a knowledge and understanding brought about by the courts themselves.

PERSONNEL OF THE COURTS

Both by their composition and by their method of procedure, these courts are peculiarly adapted to deal with disputes between employers and workingmen. They are so constituted as to inspire confidence in both parties, for employers and workingmen each elect from their own class an equal number of judges. There are, however, two types of industrial court,—first, that of France, in which the number of judges is even and the members are all employers or workingmen, and, second, that of Germany, in which the number of judges is made odd by adding to an equal number of each class a president who is neither an employer nor a workingman. Women are entitled to vote for and even themselves to serve as members in France and in the Swiss canton of Geneva. Two women judges are now acting in France, one of them in the textile industry section of the Paris court. Generally no legal training whatever is required for membership, but the judges are usually furnished with a little handbook containing a description of the method of procedure, the laws and regulations under which the court is organized, and other laws governing the labor contract. These laws are usually clear, the court never has to question their constitutionality, and most of the cases handled are simple.

Another advantage of these courts is that they are composed of a large number of judges of different trades, so that each contains ex-

perts who understand the practical details of nearly every occupation carried on within its jurisdiction. The Geneva court, for example, which decides cases that arise in agriculture and domestic service as well as in commerce and manufacture, is divided into twelve groups and about ninety different sub-groups of occupations, each of which elects its own judges. Whenever a minute knowledge of an industrial process is required for the settlement of a case the court has at hand its own experts. All the French courts are similarly divided, but in Germany less stress is laid upon the distribution of judges by trades. The Berlin court, however, has 420 members from eight groups of occupations.

PRELIMINARY HEARINGS RESULTING IN AGREEMENTS

Still another distinctive feature is the emphasis laid upon conciliation. Europeans, indeed, measure the success of the system, not by the number of disputes settled, but by the number in which parties have been persuaded to come to an agreement without the necessity of pronouncing formal judgment. The French courts, for example, are divided into two parts, a bureau of conciliation and a bureau of judgment. The former is composed of one employer and one workingman, its sessions are strictly private, and it hears all complaints before they go on to the bureau of judgment. Its members are pledged to make every possible effort to bring about a voluntary agreement between the parties. Even in the bureau of judgment, moreover, every effort is made to effect a reconciliation. As a result, only about 17 per cent. of all the complaints brought in Paris in 1908 were settled by formal judgments, other than judgments by default.

In Germany, the functions of a bureau of conciliation are, in practice, performed by the non-partisan president of the court. This president is authorized to hold preliminary hearings alone whenever he deems such action desirable. As in France, too, the full court attempts conciliation. Only about 9 per cent. of the complaints brought in Berlin in 1908, therefore, were terminated by formal judgments. The record of the Geneva court is almost as good. In Zurich the law does not specifically authorize preliminary hearings, but they have been voluntarily undertaken by an especially wise and efficient judge. This judge, in 1909, settled alone 65 per cent. of the complaints entered, and conducted the proceedings of the court itself so skillfully that in only 10 per cent. of the cases was it neces-

sary to pronounce judgment after hearing both parties.

PROMPT SETTLEMENTS REACHED

Rapidity of action and cheapness are, however, the most conspicuous features of the industrial courts of Europe. In the laws and regulations under which they are established every possible provision is made for the quick settlement of cases. The French law, indeed, provides penalties for judges who fail to decide a case within four months. But in practice disputes are settled within a month unless special expert investigations are required, or there is some very unusual cause of delay. Listening day after day during a week in July to the proceedings of the various sections of the Paris court, the writer heard scarcely a date mentioned earlier than the preceding June. In Zurich, in 1909, more than three-fourths of the 941 cases settled without judgment were ended in less than a week and more than half of the 112 in which judgment was pronounced in less than two weeks after the complaint had been entered.

MINIMUM COURT EXPENSES: DISPENSING WITH LAWYERS

The expense of appeal to these courts, moreover, is very slight. Parties must usually, if physically able, appear in person, and as a rule they argue their own cases. Lawyers, indeed, are entirely excluded from practice in the industrial courts of Germany and rarely appear, except as the representatives of large employers or companies, in France. In no case is a party obliged to hire a lawyer. Court fees, too, are reduced to a minimum. None whatever are required in Basel, Switzerland, and in France none are paid if the amount in dispute is less than 20 francs, or about \$4. No fees are demanded in Germany if the parties reach a voluntary agreement, and judgments in disputes which do not exceed in value 100 marks, or less than \$25, cost only from one to three marks, or 25 to 75 cents. In all cases the fees are graded according to the amount in dispute.

As a result of this cheapness and rapidity of action no complaint is too petty to be brought before an industrial court. Disputes have been settled in Germany which involved as little as 20 pfennigs, or about 5 cents. Only about 7.5 per cent., indeed, of all the complaints brought in the German Empire in 1908 were for more than 100 marks, or under \$25. In France, two years earlier, less than 2.5 per cent. of all the cases were for over 300

francs, or less than \$60. It is safe to say that wherever these courts have been established the great majority of suits have been for less than \$10. To some Americans such cases may seem trivial. But many a European workingman has doubtless been prevented, by having at hand the means of obtaining his rights cheaply and quickly, from being embittered by a sense of powerlessness against injustice.

INFORMALITY OF PROCEDURE

The proceedings of industrial courts are usually much less formal than those of ordinary courts. The judges wear no robes and, owing to the absence of lawyers, themselves take a much more active part than is customary in questioning the parties and witnesses. Both plaintiff and defendant tell their own stories and plead their own cases, often with considerable heat. Sometimes men grow excited and shake their fists in each other's faces, and sometimes women have recourse to pocket handkerchiefs or aprons to dry their tears. Bundles of garments or other portable articles are often passed over the bar as evidence. In a Berlin court, for example, the writer one day found the judges poring intently and very seriously over some colored shirt waists in an effort to determine whether or not the woman who made them should have been fined for imperfect work. In Colorado a jury of women was once called to decide upon the fit of a garment. So in this Berlin court a jury of employers and workingmen engaged in the clothing trade was called to decide upon the quality of work put into certain coarse cotton garments.

APPEALS FROM INDUSTRIAL COURT DECISIONS

Decisions are based, not only upon law, but also upon the customs of the locality. Sometimes, not unnaturally, when a judgment is announced, there is an outburst of feeling. On one such occasion the writer heard a Paris workingwoman, in a frenzy of disappointment, exclaim to the judges on the bench, "*Le Conseil, ce n'est pas juste*" ("The court is not just"). Usually, however, after hearing the decision, which is always accompanied by a recital of the reasons upon which it is based, the defeated party goes away wiser as to his legal rights and obligations and satisfied that, even if morally right, he was technically wrong.

Appeals from the judgments of industrial courts may be made if the value in dispute ex-

ceeds a certain amount. This amount differs considerably from one country to another. In France it is 300 francs, or under \$60, and in Germany 100 marks, or less than \$25. Some of the Swiss cantons provide that only minor disputes shall be handled, and in France cases which involve over 1000 francs, less than \$200, are sent to the ordinary courts. In Germany, however, and in Geneva, there is no financial limit to the jurisdiction of the industrial courts. Geneva, moreover, has a special tribunal, composed like the lower court of employers and workingmen, for the settlement of appealed cases. Usually, however, appeals are handled in the ordinary way.

SETTLEMENT AND PREVENTION OF STRIKES

Strikes, as well as personal suits, are sometimes brought before industrial courts. In several countries, indeed, these courts are authorized to act as boards of arbitration in collective disputes. Notable success had been attained in this line of work in Germany, especially in Berlin, where many strikes have been ended through the intervention of an industrial court president who is thoroughly trusted and greatly admired both by employers and by workingmen. In Geneva, moreover, within recent years, every collective dispute not adjusted by voluntary agreement has been settled by the industrial court, usually without any cessation of work. It is said that this method of handling collective disputes has three great advantages. First, the court already possesses the confidence of both sides. Second, it has special facilities for knowing of disagreements before they break out into actual warfare. Third, its members are skilled through constant practice in conciliation.

PROMOTING TRADE AGREEMENTS

In still another way, moreover, these courts conduce to industrial peace. For, especially in Germany, a large number of trade agreements have been formed under their auspices or under the auspices of their presidents.

This institution, indeed, is largely responsible for the wave of activity in the formation of collective contracts which has thus far culminated in the establishment of three national wage commissions, composed of employers, workingmen, and impartial third persons, in the printing, wood-working, and painting industries of Germany.

Based theoretically upon the recognition, which becomes more and more common in industrial nations, of the special nature of the labor contract and the special needs of wage-earners, these courts have become an integral, essential part of the legal machinery of the countries where they have been established. They are generally recognized, both by employers and by workingmen, as wholesome and beneficial in their results, and especially as powerful agencies working continually toward the elimination of causes of friction and bitterness and toward the maintenance of industrial peace. In factory industries, it is true, owing to the ease with which the "black list" can be applied, working people sometimes fear to bring complaints. But in all trades where there are a large number of employers as well as of workingmen, as, for example, in the clothing and building trades and in the preparation of foods and beverages, they have accomplished an inestimable work of pacification.

Would it not be well if, in England and in the United States, as well as in Continental Europe, every dispute between an employer and a workingman relative to the execution of the labor contract, no matter how trivial, could be brought before a court of experts composed of members of the two classes concerned and therefore entitled to the confidence of both parties,—a court whose chief duty should be, not to cut knots but to untie them, not to judge but to conciliate? Is it not at least worth while to consider whether such a court, by establishing a practical legal remedy for injustice, real or fancied, among Liverpool dock laborers or Brooklyn street-car employees, might not be a valuable aid in the maintenance of industrial peace?



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

FOOTBALL NEITHER A GAME NOR A SPORT

EXIT baseball; enter football! With the advent of another football season upon us, the publication, in the *Educational Review*, of Mr. David R. Porter's observations on the so-called game is particularly timely. Quoting from the dictionaries the definition of a sport as "that which diverts and makes mirth," and that of a game as "an institution to furnish sport, recreation, or amusement," this writer claims that football is "neither a sport nor a game," and that, in America at least, "football is an impossible intercollegiate sport." He does not say this because it is rough; for "its roughness would be a good thing to train the muscles and wills of boys, if it were not exaggerated by other conditions." Mr. Porter posits two reasons why football will be recognized to be an impossible intercollegiate sport:

First, because at present it violates too many of the essentials of true sport, and, second, because conditions exist in this country which will make it, even when ideally improved, a game to be played intramurally.

He claims that "the whole scheme of the game—practice, coaching, conduct of the game, schedule, trips, and rules—is contrary to the very genius of true sport." To begin with,

For every game of football there are about twelve afternoons of practice. . . . In this long, dreary, gruelling practice only the fittest survive after many unspectacular conflicts with the heavy "second team," under the eye of a coach invested with as much authority as a slave driver. . . . Practice is usually a daily dread to every member of the squad, if it is not also the fear of his dreams. Practice is not sport nor fun: it is work.

Football takes too much time to be an intercollegiate sport. Any recreation should be strictly conducive to the primary business of a college, which is to develop mind and character. As played in America, football not only does not fit men to study more, but "is too often an end in itself which, temporarily at least, makes all study impossible." Take the example of a typical university squad:

Two weeks before the term opens they assemble for preliminary training and practice. As soon as the college year begins, two or three hours are given every afternoon to a systematic drill. Players who need special training have special hours with the coaches in the mornings. As the season advances

the whole squad spends evenings with the coaches before a blackboard and listens to lectures on football. When he is through with these things the average man is too tired to study, or his mind is too full of football to allow him to concentrate upon any other subject. Then there are bruises to nurse and the trainer and doctor to visit. Some of the games require long trips away, which seriously derange lectures and studies, and before the two last games the team and substitutes leave the college for some quiet town or pleasure resort where they may spend a week in training, unhindered by the usual demands of college life. Only those whose ways of thinking have become vitiated by long contemplation of low ideals of sportsmanship can call such a system "sport."

Mr. Porter denounces the coaching system in vogue in college athletics; not that the coaches themselves exert a questionable influence, for they are sometimes the best type of gentlemen. But it is, on the face of it,

inconceivable that the physical exercises, whose only *raison d'être* is to fit men to carry on the mind-stimulating, character-forming work of college life, should be under the direction of a man, more highly paid than most professors, who probably knows nothing about scientific physical training. If we could forget custom and blind our eyes for a moment to big gate receipts, we could think of nothing more ludicrous than the whole coaching system. A head coach, a coach for the line men, a coach for the backs, a coach for the second team, and then, if a game is lost, a long list of unnamed coaches arrive like reinforcements to a routed brigade. The more football becomes work, the more it becomes war.

American football is unsportsmanlike. Take, for example, the regulation that any player who for any reason, except rough play, has been removed from the game, may be returned to the game at any time.

What is needed for victory is not so much a good team as a large squad from which frequent reinforcements may be drawn. None in this squad need be in fit condition, for as soon as they are tired fresh men will rush to their places. Endurance ceases to be a necessary quality in a player. . . . Again, look at the frequent spectacle of a substitute being rushed in when some special situation demands a play that the regular players cannot carry out. A goal might be kicked; so a strong line-plunger is removed that a man who can do little else but kick may make the score. A strong defense is needed near the goal; take out the fast back and put in the burly one. Revert to the original player when the offense begins.

Our schools and colleges are so widely scattered that natural rivals can in many in-

stances meet but once a year. Consequently a higher valuation is placed upon that one victory than if the teams met several times a year, as in baseball. This means harder preparation, more careful training, costlier and more efficient coaching, fiercer play. But the strongest objection of all to football as an intercollegiate contest is that "it gives physical benefit to only a small proportion of

the average institution, and these few are of all the men in the institution those who need it least."

Having, as he considers, demonstrated that football as now played in America, is an impossible intercollegiate sport, Mr. Porter suggests that we frankly face the situation, adopt the English Rugby game, and limit it to intramural contests.

ORGANIZED LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY

THE principles of organized labor and those of scientific management seem, to the impartial observer, to be at variance. Is their opposition merely an accident due to imperfections which may be corrected, so that both can flourish concurrently, or must one of the opposing forces crush the other, in order to survive? It was recently predicted by one of our leading efficiency engineers that the adoption by industrial establishments of the system of scientific management would mean for employers and workmen adopting it, and especially those who adopt it first, the elimination of most of the causes for dispute now existing between them. Prof. John R. Commons, writing in the *American Economic Review*, says the spokesmen of organized labor seem to take a different view of the matter. He reminds his readers that

experience has shown that it has not been difficult to win strikes in periods of prosperity, but it has been impossible to retain the fruits. Consequently, to the experienced unionist, the preservation of his union has come to be more important than winning strikes. And nearly all of the restrictive policies of which complaint is made spring from the effort to preserve the union. The irrepressible conflict, therefore, if there is one, between unionism and scientific management will be found at the points where management weakens the solidarity of unionism. Other points of conflict are incidental. These are irrepressible. The real question here is this: Can scientific management deal scientifically with organizations as well as individuals? Is there a science of industrial organization as well as a science of engineering details?

As an aid to the discussion of this question, Professor Commons cites the history of the stove molders and stove foundrymen. The latter for forty years before 1890 had been working out the problem of efficiency details—long before management had become a science.

They learned to subdivide labor so that a three-dollar man would be kept on three-dollar work and never be permitted to turn his hand to what a

dollar man could do. . . . The consequence was, that for forty years every step toward greater efficiency and greater output per man brought a cut in the price of stoves; and every cut in the price of stoves took away by so much the employers' reward for efficiency; every loss of profit forced employers to cut the piece-rates of wages; every cut in piece-rates forced the wage-earners to greater output for the same earnings, and so on, around the vicious circle of futile efficiency.

The stove molders tried coöperation as early as 1847, in the vain endeavor to avoid strikes. In time they became "the most persistently violent and restrictive of all labor organizations."

To prevent employers from cutting piece-rates and to build up a compact union, they established the rules that apprentices should be limited; that no man should be allowed to work with the aid of helpers; that no man should be allowed to earn more than a fixed wage set by the union. And then, to enforce these rules, they fined and expelled the violators and established and violently enforced the other rule that union men should not be allowed to work with non-union men. Finally, this anarchy of individual efficiency brought its correction in the form of a representative government in control of the industry. . . . This is the trade-agreement, or joint-conference system, that has preserved industrial peace in the stove-foundry business for over twenty years. . . . It governs the employer as firmly as the employee. The employer who cuts a piece-rate is expelled from the employers' association, and is left alone to defend himself against the union. The union has removed its restrictions on output, and every man is left to earn as much as he wishes, without the fear of menacing his own or other's wages. It required some fifteen years of the agreement system to bring about this final result, so inveterate and abiding had been the distrust by the union of the employer's power and will to restrain himself from seizing upon the efficiency earnings. . . . Throughout these rules run the two conflicting principles—efficiency and restriction—both of them brought into a kind of equilibrium by the higher principle of organization.

Professor Commons argues that the employer's business being to attend to the increase of efficiency, and the wage-earner's to

sell himself to do the employer's bidding for a period of time, the two interests are necessarily conflicting. Open conflict is to be avoided in three ways:

By the domination of the employer as in the steel trust to-day; by the domination of the union, as in the iron industry prior to the Homestead strike; by the equal dominion of the two interests, as in the stove-foundry business to-day.

The professor devotes some space to a discussion of the bonus system, which, reduced to its last analysis, is, he says, individual bargaining instead of union bargaining. He contends that the individual bargain should be eliminated as far as possible, and the collective bargain substituted. Employers and the merely scientific man are often surprised at the unanimity with which thousands of unorganized laborers will suddenly turn out on strike at the call of a few hundred organized ones. It is "their desperate recognition that the day of individual bargains is

gone for them." Most persons will agree with Professor Commons when, in this connection, he says:

It would seem that a great corporation, representing thousands of stockholders speaking through one man, might be able to anticipate unionism by finding some means of scientific organization of labor before installing scientific management. In lieu of this, they wait until a union is formed, and then complain that it is hostile to efficiency. The example of the stove molders shows that their hostility to efficiency is the hostility to methods that take them at a disadvantage in their power of protecting themselves. When once they are guaranteed assurance, as in the foundry business, that this will not be done, they respond as reasonably as other people.

The efficiency engineers are bringing forward issues that merely obstructive unionism will be compelled to meet in a spirit of co-operation, or else go down. On the other hand, the view must no longer be persisted in, that all opposition of organized labor to industrial efficiency is merely obstructive and unreasoning.

THE PAPAL SOVEREIGNTY

THE Pope's illness during the past summer was probably aggravated by, if not wholly due to, the intense heat in Rome, where His Holiness remained to uphold the precedent of tacit protest against the Italian Government as usurper of the Papal States and justify the clerical watchword, "the Vicar of Christ held prisoner in the Eternal City." But, concerned at the state of health of the head of the Church, the Italian Government intimated to the Cardinal Secretary that if His Holiness desired to visit any Italian watering-place he would be received by military and municipal authorities with the honors accorded to other visiting crowned heads. The traditional Vatican attitude was, however, not deviated from, but the Quirinal scored. The Black party could no longer brand her as parricide.

In 1909, when the celebration of Jeanne d'Arc's beatification was held at Mans, M. Pavie decorated his windows with the Pontiff's colors, unaware certainly that such a natural step would cause, two years later, a legal battle. He actually raised the question of the papal sovereignty, and the criminal division of the Cour de Cassation has just passed a decision which the religious world was not alone to receive with some astonishment.

The prefect of La Sarthe had forbidden the

display of flags which did not carry the national colors either of France or foreign nations. The papal banner of M. Pavie, being considered forbidden, he was summoned to appear before the police magistrate. M. Pavie, in defense, stated that he had displayed a foreign banner, that is the personal flag of a sovereign, the Pope; and the judge acquitted him. But the ministry appealed against this judgment to the Supreme Court, and so the Criminal Division has just been called upon to decide nominally if M. Pavie was guilty of infringing the prefect's order, but in reality if the Pope is a sovereign. The decision was the following: "The papal banner in white and yellow is no longer a flag of a foreign nation, since the sovereignty of which it was formerly the symbol has ceased to exist, as a consequence of the annexation of the Papal States to the kingdom of Italy."

M. Louis Delzons, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, examines the Court of Cassation's decision and finds that the weakness of the court's position lies in their assumption that there is no sovereignty except when there is a state. This principle is no doubt generally true in international law, but M. Delzons doubts that sovereignty was ever conceded to the Pope as result of the possession of the Papal States or ever taken away when



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POPE PIUS X

the states were annexed to United Italy. Historically, M. Delzons resumes:

The gift of Charlemagne established the temporal power of the Holy See, and this power lasted for more than ten centuries, until in 1870 the Italian troops entered Rome through the Porto Pia. But the states were very mediocre, and their strength almost nil, and in the order of economic and military resources, the Pope remained certainly in the lowest rank of sovereigns. He was, however, universally recognized, if not as the first, at least for one of those whose good-will, friendship, and protection could not be neglected without grave inconvenience; and not chargé d'affaires, but am-

bassadors chosen among men capable of directing the greatest interests, were deputed to him.

There was thus, from the first day of the temporal power to the last, a singular disproportion between its material substance, if one may say so, and the extraordinary greatness attributed by all other sovereigns to the person of the Pope, because the Sovereign Pontiff represented and wielded a political and moral power unique in the world attached to his quality as supreme head of the Catholic Church. One is free to find this political power good or evil, to admire its direction and results or deplore and combat them. But that the power existed and belonged to the Pope because he was head of the church and not because he pos-

sessed Romagna is certain, and the fact is too well known for insistence. The papal sovereignty was essentially spiritual and only incidentally temporal.

On the 13th of May, 1871, the young kingdom of Italy passed the law guaranteeing the person of the Pope. Signor Visconti-Venosta described its purpose, before it was enacted, as follows: "It will suffice to recall the fact that the privilege of *extra muros* will place the person of the Holy Father in the same state of immunity as a sovereign, and that ambassadors will continue to represent the powers at the Holy See and the Holy See will continue to send legates to the powers."

The Law of Guarantee thus excludes in the most energetic manner the possibility of considering the Pope as a subject of Italy. What is he, then, if not a sovereign? The reasons of profound statecraft which dictated this law in 1871 to Italy will continue to actuate her Vatican policy, as we have just seen. Since the decree declaring the papal sovereignty abolished proceeds from a French tribunal it is interesting to recall the opinion of French cabinets and statesmen on the question. The presence of a French Ambassador at the Vatican and a Nuncio at Paris, who yearly presented the good wishes of the diplomatic corps to the President of the Republic, is sufficient proof that the Pope was recognized until the separation of the church from the state in 1904, as sovereign in France. In the Senate, the 20th November, 1882, M. Duclerc answered the proposal of M. Nadier to suppress the embassy at the Vatican: "I judge that it is not doubtful for anyone that the Holy See is still actually as great a political power as before the suppression of the temporal power. For it is to the Pope, the Sovereign Pontiff, to the man invested with a great moral power, that the

other great political powers of Europe sent ambassadors. Because of this fact, even after the loss of the Papal States, they continue to send ambassadors, and I repeat that the French embassy at the Vatican is a necessity of the Republic." In 1901, the *Garde des Sceaux* (Keeper of the Seals) under Waldeck Rousseau wrote to the procurator-general of Dijon apropos of the same papal banner that has been so unlucky for M. Pavie at Mans: "I have the honor to inform you, in accordance with a communication from the Minister of Foreign Affairs, that the papal banner in white and yellow is *that of a sovereign*." The Keeper of the Seals was recently President of the Council, M. Monis. The diplomatic rupture between two powers never has the result of affecting the sovereignty of either of them, so the law of separation of December 9, 1905, could not change in any way the international status of the papacy. Besides, the Criminal Division has taken care not to attribute to the interior policy of France in 1905 results which it could not have, and attributes them only to the Italian crisis of 1870. Why has the Criminal Court plunged into the dilemma when the French nation acknowledged the Pope as sovereign before the whole world during the very period from 1870-1905 that the Criminal Court declares that the Pope was no longer sovereign?

The reply, ends M. Delzons, is that materialism in law, as in philosophy, resembles the mirrors that deform the true aspect of things. Spuller formulated the complete and deep truth the day he said, "Do you imagine that the sovereignty of the Pope depends on a handful of dirt?"

• WILL THE THEFT OF THE MONNA LISA HELP THE LOUVRE?

UNDOUBTEDLY the world of art has been profoundly disturbed by the theft, discovered on August 23, of Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece, the portrait of Monna Lisa, from the walls of the Louvre, in Paris. Da Vinci spent four years of his life in painting this lady with the sly eyes and the mysterious smile, and it is a tradition that he became so attached to it that he afterward begged it back from the purchaser, since he could not live without it. If the artist was four years in painting it, for four hundred years artists and lovers of the mysterious life of the Renaissance have worshiped before this picture as before a shrine.

The masterpiece, known to English-speaking people as "Monna Lisa," but more properly named "La Joconde," was one of the three or four supreme art treasures of the Louvre. Critics value it only second to the Sistine Madonna, and it is reported that the French Government recently refused an offer of a million dollars for it. The stories

about the subject of the portrait and the apparently everlasting discussion as to the character shown by the face and the meaning of the mysterious smile have made the picture not only a valuable work of art, but a subject of universal discussion. It is generally believed that Monna—Madonna Lisa, to give her the proper form of title—was the wife of Francesco del Giaconda, a Florentine merchant: Leonardo painted it at intervals covering four years, the sittings being brief because he could paint only when the lady smiled.

A number of explanations have been offered as to the motive of the theft. Some claim that it was stolen to be held for ransom. Others that the theft was engineered by an American collector, who wanted to have a beautiful copy made, intending to return the original (or perhaps the copy, who knows?) later to the Louvre. A third theory is that the whole thing is a hoax perpetrated to show how easy it would be to rob the Louvre. A

fourth explanation has it that the picture was stolen to enable some monomaniac, no longer able to go to the Louvre, to feast his eyes at home upon the object of his idolatry.

The discovery of the ease with which the picture could be removed has led to a discussion from which the only conclusion to be drawn is that France's art treasures in the Louvre have been very inadequately cared for. It seems almost incredible that the painting, which is not on canvas, but on a heavy wooden panel, could be removed from its frame and carried off without any of the custodians of the gallery realizing what was going on. A cynical American daily remarks that if the Paris police are vigilant they can probably arrest the thief when he comes back to steal the Louvre itself! An investigation made during the few days following the theft has revealed

the fact that during the past three or four years more than three hundred works of art have been abstracted from the Louvre collection. The authorities have begun a vigorous campaign of investigation, and it is reported that the entire staff of gallery custodians will be changed. The director has already been suspended.

It was by interesting coincidence that, a few days before the theft of the famous painting from the Paris gallery, there should have appeared a work of fiction, anonymously published, purporting to be the story of the love affair between Da Vinci and Monna Lisa. The book, which is entitled "Monna Lisa, or the Quest of the Woman Soul,"¹ claims to

be a translation of "a dilapidated manuscript discovered in a heap of rubbish in one of the old palaces of Florence, which was undergoing alterations." On examination, we are further informed, the papers proved to be the long-lost journal kept by Leonardo da

Vinci, the great Italian mathematician, engineer, astronomer and artist, best known to fame to-day as the painter of the world-renowned portrait of Madonna Lisa del Gioconda. It is evident that the story of the mysterious journal is a literary device to give the desired setting to this love story which might have been the real romance of the painter and his beautiful subject. The writer, who admits himself to be an American, has devoted long years to the study of Italian art and literature, and signs himself Guglielmo Scala. The story itself, whether it be real

or fictitious, unfolds an absorbing love tale delicately and frankly set forth. The development of Da Vinci's philosophically indifferent attitude toward women in the first place, to the gradual yielding of mind, soul and body to the charms of Monna Lisa, culminates in a climax, when the two reveal the full strength of their love.

Upon the death of Madonna Lisa del Gioconda, the artist realized that he had learned from her what he had vainly sought before. "And so I learned through my lady what a woman soul might be. Instead of truth and justice which is the goal of man's virtù, woman's end is love—love with truth and justice if that be possible, but love transcending truth and justice if it be not."



MONNA LISA

(Da Vinci's famous painting "Monna Lisa", known to the French as "La Joconde", which was stolen from the Louvre gallery in Paris on August 21 or 22.)

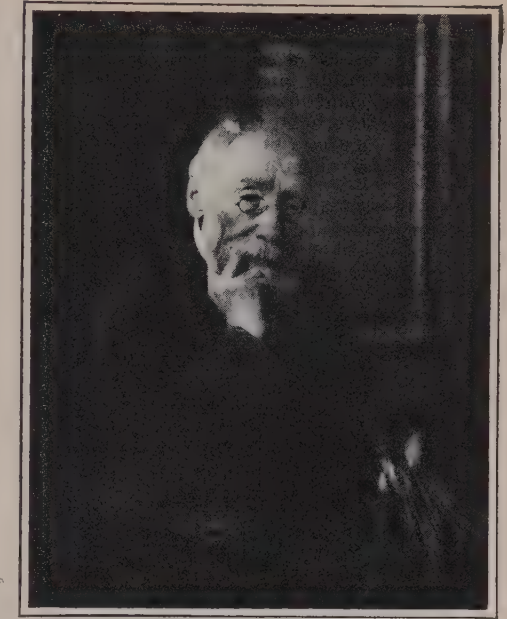
¹ Monna Lisa or the Quest of the Woman Soul. By Guglielmo Scala. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 206 pp., port. \$1.

ISRAELS, HOLLAND'S MASTER PAINTER

IT was the rare satisfaction of the late Josef Israels, the Dutch painter, who died at The Hague on August 12, to have begun in advance of his time "to create his own public, to see it grow stronger, larger, and more devoted as he passed from youth to middle age, thence to extreme old age." These are the words of the London *Times* in its comment on Israels' achievements.

Israels was the leader of the modern Dutch school. More than fifty-five years ago, fresh from his French teachers, he exhibited a great historical picture, openly admitted that it was a failure, and announced his firm intention of beginning all over again in a new way. He left Paris, went back to Holland, threw aside all the conventions he had learned, and, with his keen eye and trained hand alone, set out to paint life, not accidents, "the simple life of the poor, their labors and homely joys." A vast series of pictures, now known all over the world, was the result of this determination. Israels was first of all a painter of pathos. In commenting on his work, the *Pall Mall Gazette* says:

He was the first of the modern Dutch to conquer our insular prejudices, and his victory was the greater in that he labored under a certain disadvantage. Hebrew blood may not be a handicap to the financier—there are times when it would seem to be a passport—but it cannot be considered a recommendation in the world of art. In Israels' case the handicap was doubled or trebled by the extent to which it influenced his outlook



JOSEF ISRAELS, LEADER OF THE MODERN DUTCH SCHOOL OF PAINTING, WHO DIED ON AUGUST 12

upon life. While it sharpened his sensibilities, and intensified his passion for the sanctities of home, it seemed to concentrate all the bitterness of a persecuted race into a contempt for fashion in subject and technique.

Once he had broken with the picturesque traditions of Picot and Delaroche, his trainers in the school of the historic tableau, Israels went to the



"ALONE IN THE WORLD".—ONE OF THE CHARACTERISTIC PAINTINGS OF THE LATE JOSEF ISRAELS, AND REGARDED BY ART CRITICS AS ONE OF HIS BEST

other extreme. He made a second nature of self-denial; he studied the art of doing without. Henceforward he was to be the master of the peasant, like Millet, but to exceed even Millet in austerity. The painter of "The Sower" and "The Angelus" retained the fervor of his religion, the beauty of physiological outline, and the bounty of the sunshine. Josef Israels forewent all three. His were the cold northern light, the shadow of a day that was either sunless or fading, and a palette that simulated the grey and the furrows of old age.

Probably no painter of our time has met with greater recognition, or stands a better chance with posterity. It remains to be seen upon which period of his work the future will bestow its final laurels; on the early student of Dutch history, which is unlikely—on the veteran who could throw off a scene of desolation with a few loose and rugged strokes of grey and black—or on the unapproachable excellence of his maturity, when he searched the depths of heartache and poverty in painting the unromantic hardships of the fisher-life.

Josef Israels was born at Groningen in 1824. In his early boyhood he was a clerk in his father's bank, and for a time his par-

ent's wish was that he should become a rabbi. But in his case, as in that of many others, the artistic side of his nature found a means of asserting itself. It was illness that first set his mind and hand to the pictorial interpretation of the humble life of Holland. Says the *Morning Post* (London):

Misery, decrepit age, and death were his favorite subjects. That part of humanity which, strive as it may, suffers at the hand of fate from the cradle to the grave, appealed to him with tragic force. Yet his doleful scenes impress one with the great power and sincerity of their expression. There is no affectation in the pathos, no whining of the conquered spirit, no frantic regret for blighted passion. The figures in his dramas act unconsciously. Their grief leaves them inarticulate, motionless. For the time there is nothing else in the world for them but woe, and their dumb resignation, begotten of long, sad experience, touches the heart. But in the life of the poor peasant and fisherman he often found the nobility and strange beauty that remains unexplained in the simplest of the people.

THE SCULPTOR RODIN'S VIEWS ON ART

RODIN has something of the patriarch and the sage, but nothing of the pompous pretensions of the high priest. There is great pleasure in hearing him speak, after a life of work, of the realism that is the secret of all art, and the gift of sympathetic intuition of reality that is the strength of every enduring artist. At Val-Fleury the master slowly paces up and down before his red-brick Louis XIII pavilion with its columned portico and talks leisurely and with courteous affability of what he has seen and experienced. The garden is delightful. Through the trees gleam the marble of slender festooned altars, and here and there a young Mithra sacrificing a sacred bull, an Eros asleep on a lion skin, or a vase leaning against a background of dark green hedge. Yonder, swans circle in the pool, tracing silver lines on the surface. On the horizon are the poplars along the Seine, and above the Pont de Sèvres, dyed rose pink by the sunset, runs the faint line of the Saint-Cloud cliffs. And to this garden M. Paul Gsell went to invite the master to loose the reins of his fancy and memory and carry on the animated dialogue in the "Conversations on Art by Rodin," which M. Gsell has just published.

M. André Chaumieux, in the *Revue Hebdomadaire*, comments on the robust sanity of Rodin's views and remarks how nearly related they are to life itself and nature, how little

intellectual or theoretic. There is little æstheticism if not purely latent, no learned theories pedantically expounded, but things, facts, practical demonstrations—a sculptor talking intelligently of sculpture with that ardor breathing love of the theme. One thinks of Pascal's mot, "I went to see an author. I was surprised and delighted to find a man."

"You have read," says Rodin, "in Ovid, how Daphne is transformed into a laurel bush and Progne into a swallow. The charming poet shows the body of Daphne slowly being covered with leaves and bark, the limbs of Progne donning feathers, so that in each one of them we still see the woman that she is ceasing to be, and at the same time the bush or bird she is becoming. It is a miracle of the same order that the painter or sculptor must work with his personages. Art does not exist without life, and life is movement. Movement is transition from one attitude to another. All the skill lies in showing in a statue the passing from one pose to another. As the Marshal Ney of Pride who draws his sword and seems to cry "En avant!" to his troops. This effect is obtained by the indication of different attitudes. The left arm and the legs are placed as they were when the Marshal dismounted; his torso, on the contrary, corresponds with the gesture of the right arm that is lifted and waves the saber. And, too, in Watteau's *Embarquement pour Cythère*, a drama is developed from right to left. In the foreground, near a bust of Cypris engarlanded with roses, a young man kneels before a girl and seems to entreat her consent. Beside them a girl, seen from the back, accepts the hand proffered to assist her to rise. Farther on another allows her gallant to

put his arm around her waist and lead her away. Then several pairs meander smilingly to the ship. Finally, the pilgrims aid their ladies to embark and Cupids flutter around the flowery prow pointed towards the sacred isle. But all these juxtaposed scenes represent the different moments of one action, the story of one pair, seen at successive moments. My St. John the Baptist is shown with both feet on the ground. It is probable that an instantaneous photograph of a model would show the rear foot already lifted and moving towards the other. But the photographed model would present the singular aspect of a man suddenly paralyzed, all the parts of his body being exactly reproduced at the same one-twentieth or even one-fortieth part of a second, and there is not, as in art, the successive development of the gesture necessary to produce the effect of movement. The scientific picture, where time is suspended, is much more conventional than the impression produced by an artist of a gesture executed in several seconds. Science represents reality as a botanist shows us flowers, but the artist succeeds in evoking the enchantment of a garden."

M. Gsell asks of Rodin, In what definitely consists the study of nature that is the Book of Wisdom for all artists? "It is not Nature herself that you show in your work," says M. Gsell. "You are forced to change her, and the proof of it is that a mold would not at all give the same impression as your masterpieces." Rodin defends himself with the tranquil authority of innate good sense.

"I am a hunter of truth and a spy of life. I obey Nature in everything. The sole principle in

art is to be servilely faithful to her. With due respect to ultra-æstheticism, every other method is disastrous. There is no receipt for embellishing Nature. There are two ways, at least, to offend



AUGUSTE RODIN, THE FRENCH SCULPTOR



RODIN'S MASTERPIECE, "THE THINKER"

Nature—not to observe her sufficiently and to observe her wrongly. In both cases the artists are well punished. They devote themselves, by this failure to observe or by this excess of detail, to romanticism or to banal realism. They become dilettanti or photographers, æsthetes or disciples of Zola. When an artist arranges Nature, when he puts her in fine poses, and disposes her so as to please an ignorant public, he creates ugliness because he is afraid of truth. The public does not care for truth. The taste for reality exists only where there are culture, traditions of social life, the habit of observing and understanding the spectacle things present. All the aristocracies have been realists. The mob is imaginative and delights in the commonplace romantic. I think with joy of the grand seigneurs who took pleasure in seeing themselves painted with the greatest realism. Charles V, who allowed Titian to show his supreme hardness; Philip IV, who endured from Velasquez the portraits as an extremely elegant but very insignificant man with a hanging jaw. With our most intelligent contemporaries we see revealed a repugnance for artistic truth. They want to seem hairdressers. And the women aspire to be either an engraving of a great tailor or an illustration for a magazine. All this comes from the evil of the age—that is, indifference to truth and incapacity for taking interest in the real."

M. Chaumieux recalls a page of Anatole France where he has defended with grace the eminent dignity of them who have temperament enough to be enchanted with realities

without needing the help of literature and art. He compares two persons, one an artist pursuing woman in mystic dreams of the Infinite, poetry and æstheticism, and the other simply in love with a living girl. And to the artist Anatole France makes another character cry, "You believe him a mere animal because he does not understand Rossetti's sonnets. But take care that he has not more imagination than you can muster. He can discover the inherent beauty of things, and as for you, you must have La Pia herself—not as she was in her poor mortal life, but such as the art of poet and painter has made her." "If I have well understood Rodin, he might aim similar barbed shafts at those who bedizen Nature with the cosmetics of the workshop."

Rodin declares that he is deeply religious—that from the observation of material forms he has arrived from meditation to meditation at the shore of the Unknown. He speaks of the august serenity of the three goddesses of the Parthenon, of the melancholy exaltation that seized him before the

Rustic Concert of Giorgione, of the sentiment of destiny in Millet, and, above all, of the mystery that underlies the soft lines dear to a Vinci. All bring him unceasingly to recognize in this world something that goes beyond. "Mystery," he says, "is as the atmosphere of the very beautiful works of art. They express all that genius feels before Nature. They represent Nature with all the clearness, with all the magnificence that a human brain can discover in her. But necessarily they encounter the Infinite Unknown that surrounds on every side the very minute sphere of the Known."

Rodin, whose fame is world-wide and whose works have often disconcerted, appears in these dialogues as a follower of the classic tradition. Phidias, Aristotle, Horace, Racine, La Fontaine, Molière, and Hugo have borne the same witness: study of nature, entire submission to the objective, the virile worship of reality, and the gift of finding in Nature, even when tragic, that beauty that is the law itself of art.

GABRIELE D'ANNUNZIO AS ART COLLECTOR

GABRIELE d'Annunzio recently told a group of friends this story in a mood of buoyant gaiety:

An actress who had been forced to leave the stage because of an accident to her right eye applied to me for the rôle of the one-eyed woman in "Paolo e Francesca." I gave it to her. The next day the newspapers published my inhumanity. In a rage I had put out her eye to gain greater artistic realism!

There is probably as slight a foundation for the other legends that have grown around the Italian poet's personality. Yet it was a relief to his friends and admirers when the much discussed sale of art treasures at the Villetta alla Caponcina was an accomplished fact. That the sale may prove a moral as well as material redemption for the poet, in whose later works an increasing preoccupation with sumptuous decorative detail has been uneasily noted, is some compensation for those who regret the dispersal of a collection so carefully and intelligently chosen.

In *La Lettura* (Milan) Signor Luigi Rasi is full of anecdote and vividly calls up the atmosphere in which so many of the dreams and novels of d'Annunzio were created.

I had a feeling of desolation when I found myself before the courtyard transformed by d'Annunzio into a spacious anteroom flanked all around by

enormous plants in terra cotta vases ornamented with masks and bas reliefs and festooning. I went into the first salon—the dining-room. It might be a refectory of monks and the other salons cells of a monastery for their curious oppression and melancholy. The crimson of damasks, the deep tones of the furniture, partly old, partly restored and partly modern; huge missals on the huge carved reading desks, arabesqued wrought-iron torch holders, gigantic tapers, cushions and draperies piled up in every available corner, terra cotta and plaster reproductions of the classic bronzes and marbles, worthless books with ancient bindings, sometimes priceless, dozens of brass mortars, rare porcelain, vases, old and new crystal wine-goblets. There was a pell-mell of the most incongruous objects; a plaster cast of Beethoven next two mummied feet enclosed in a little urn of crystal and gilded wood; with the Bambino, a psaltery and a great Æolian harp next the Bechstein concert grand from which the genius of Alberto Franchetti inspired in countless twilights the harmonies of the "Figlia d'Iorio." And as if the gloominess of the relics, the low tones of the furniture and the deep windows shadowed by the plants and vines outside were not enough, the master has had the doors and windows set with the opaque saffron curved glass of the mode of the fourteenth century as if to darken this twilight which seems to repeat the famous motto "Per non dormire!"

The only corner of the villa where a little of the violence of sunlight is allowed to penetrate is the paradise of a study on the second floor. It was charming with its wealth of rugs, cushions and footstools, vases, tables, bookcases, and portraits—two of these are by Leubach. Here d'Annunzio wrote his greatest drama "Francesca," and the lyrics and prose that have made him prince of our

living writers. At the première of "Francesca," d'Annunzio in a little room in the theater was reading Dante, his breviary, aloud, intoning the lines with an obvious delight almost physical. At the première of "La Nave," he was eating confitures at the Origo Palace, chatting brightly with the old marchioness. For each work, completed in an intense fervor of faith, is at once dead for the poet whose most imperative need is to create another.

But the study in which I have taken refuge from the noise of the auction beginning below is now in turn invaded, and I go down to observe the public. All the antiquaries are there, the representatives of the press, a few of the aristocracy, a few artists, a few men of letters, a few Americans, Germans and Russians; then the painter Michetti, the poet's spiritual brother, Ojetti and Praga. The auction is animated by the bidding for a fine XIV century painting, now a rare antique rug, again a gloriously-toned strip of brocade, and has its climax when

a XIV century wrought-iron torch holder is put up. This and a magnificent carved reading desk brought the highest prices of the sale. When the auctioneer cried out "Saint Onofrius, antique statue in wood, life-sized!" a friend of mine exclaimed "That's the famous statue!" "Why 'famous'?" I turned to ask. And he told of its reception at Caponcina and the rose leaves strewn down the garden paths for the poet carrying it with outstretched arms with the sacred pomp accorded to relics and perhaps a little more of the superstition of the amulet that is hung up for the averting of the evil-eye. And admiration of his ever-childish simplicity of soul was mingled with some derision at this little episode—almost a parody of Gabriele d'Annunzio's indisputable greatness—undeniable to-day, but from which we cannot yet detach a certain inexorable grotesqueness. Greatness and grotesque notes which recall to me capriciously the "Knight and Death" of Albrecht Dürer.

HAGENBECK AS AN EDUCATOR

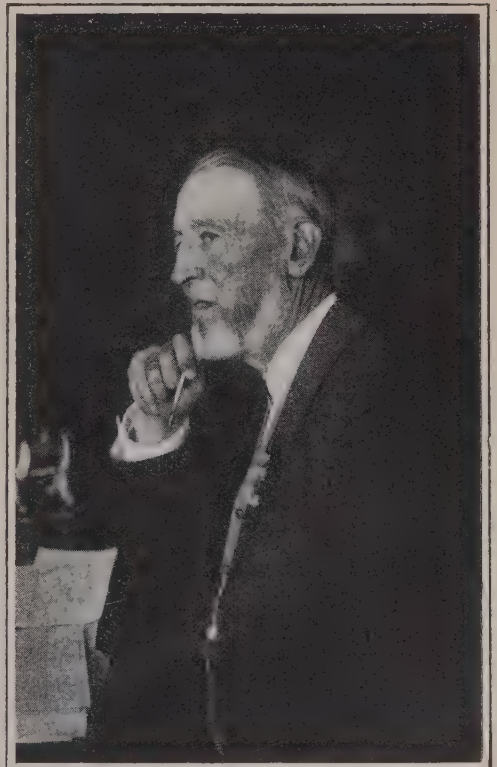
THE splendid project of Carl Hagenbeck, the famous animal collector, of creating a zoölogical garden in Berlin on the plan of his wonderful and unique *Tierpark* at Stellingen, near Hamburg, is rapidly being realized. The Emperor is lending active support to the undertaking. What such a park means as an educational, uplifting factor to the rapidly growing millions of the great German metropolis, what lessons it will inculcate as to the duty of preserving animal species that are being ruthlessly exterminated, and related points, are enthusiastically discussed in an elaborate article in the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich), by C. G. Schilling, the African traveler and zoölogist. He begins by remarking that "a large percentage of the school children of Berlin have never seen a lark nor heard a nightingale, and can not distinguish in a field between wheat and rye." Then he continues:

It is a physical impossibility to flood the outskirts of a city, even on holidays, with hundreds of thousands without robbing the woods of their primitive charm. Thus it is that within any accessible distance of a great town the country is laid waste. Large cities and primitiveness are incompatible, and yet people would so gladly know the various aspects of jungle, plain, virgin forest, swamp. Fortunately, a comparatively ample space is at disposal for Hagenbeck's venture. His park at Hamburg is world-renowned, and in spite of the great number of zoölogical gardens in Germany, it has in a short time aroused the special interest of both natives and foreigners. And this with good right, for it is constantly being freshly supplied, at first hand, by the popular founder with animals from every quarter of the globe accessible to his widespread forces.

The writer was profoundly impressed at his first view of Hagenbeck's creation at Stel-

lingen. What the former had tried to describe in words—"the mighty language of the earth's crust, which shows us in living letters, as it were, the primitive abundance of animal life—Hagenbeck has reproduced artificially, and yet how naturally, in miniature."

The layman can hardly realize the extent to which animal species have been decimated by man,



Photograph by George Grantham Bain, N. Y.

CARL HAGENBECK, THE FAMOUS ANIMAL TRAINER

whose beginnings reach back many hundreds of thousands of years; nor the fact that in the tertiary period, in particular, our globe teemed with highly developed animal life. Man had to fight his way through it inch by inch to his present stage of perfection. Hagenbeck's idea is to give us a realizing sense of those past conditions. Molded of stone, of colossal proportions, he surrounded a pool with the giant animals of the primeval world, some of them reptiles that lived millions of years ago but whose remains are preserved imbedded in stones; with huge flying dragons and other gigantic creatures now matched in size only by our ocean whales. Only one step further and the visitor beholds a miniature arctic world, alive with seals, walrus and northern sea-birds, crowned by rocks and crags of arctic formation. And he sees, further, living specimens of the antarctic region: sea-elephants, sea-lions, penguins. In the background, separated from the onlooker by invisible ditches—not by gratings, which destroy the illusion—polar bears, musk oxen and reindeer meet the eye. Hagenbeck's walrus, the first the writer had beheld alive, were as tame as dogs, clever, and touchingly affectionate.

Hagenbeck is a pioneer, too, in herding the most varied species of animals in extensive

enclosures, thus affording the visitor for the first time a living picture of the animal groups of the steppes where, as in East Africa, for example, of 160 species of native mammals, thirty or more different species may, at a favorable time, be seen assembled together within a comparatively small space.

Hagenbeck felt intuitively that the time had come when it was essential to open men's minds by great living pictures to a realizing sense of the wonderful, multiform creatures on our globe. Such a beginning is worthy of all praise, in contrast to our sophisticated views, which almost ignore the rich, beautiful, glorious life that surges in distant steppe and virgin forest. What particularly draws me to Hagenbeck is his sympathetic comprehension of the tragedy of animal creation precisely in our day. And this, distinctly and clearly, is why I have headed my remarks "Hagenbeck as an Educator." What this man unfolds before us in living forms bears this device: "See how splendid is the fauna of our earth! Guard and preserve it! Suffer not that, for momentary, material advantage, it should be totally erased from the list of the living!"

SULTAN MEHMED V., AS SEEN BY MR. STEAD

THE new Turkey has both a real man and a real policy. Such, at any rate, is the firm belief of Mr. W. T. Stead, editor of the *English Review of Reviews*. Mr. Stead spent the month of July in Constantinople and was accorded the privilege of a personal interview with the Sultan. He describes this meeting and what was said at it in his review for September. Of the Turkish ruler, he says:

The Sultan is a man well advanced in years. Of his sixty-seven years he spent thirty under constant surveillance, which made him practically a prisoner. No man can be long in confinement, whether in a gaol or in a palace, without to some extent losing nerve. The nerve and muscle of his mind might well have become atrophied by prolonged seclusion from the busy world. He has not the keen, alert, decisive temperament of a Roosevelt. He has not yet quite got his sea legs. He is not a man out of which "a riding Sultan" is made. His character is more contemplative than executive. He is given to mystic reveries. Persistent reports as to his ill-health, although as constantly denied, leave an uneasy impression that the value of his life is not high from the point of view of an actuary of an insurance company. To put the case at its worst with frank brutality, the Sultan is regarded as a weak old man, remarkable neither for intellect, energy, nor resolution, advanced in years and infirm of body, who is a mere puppet in the hands of the Young Turks. To suit their turn, they summoned him to a throne which they are quite ready to provide with another occupant should he cease to be as clay in their hands. . . . It is true that Mehmed V. is neither a Peter the Great nor a Mahmoud II. It is true that he is advanced in years, and that he has lived most of his life as a

recluse, finding consolation in the study of Arabian mystics rather than seeking his inspiration in Blue-books and state papers. It may be true that his health is not of the best, and it is undoubtedly true that he was called to the throne by the military *pronunciamiento* which was exploited by the Young Turks in the interest of constitutionalism. Nevertheless and notwithstanding, I adhere to my deliberate conviction that at the present moment the Sultan is the man of the situation, and that the hope of the immediate future lies in the opportunity which skilful and courageous Ministers may afford him of carrying out the policy which he believes to be the best for the maintenance and the preservation of the Ottoman Empire.

The Sultan is the man of the situation, Mr. Stead maintains.

He is the man of the situation—first, because he is Sultan; secondly, because he is the Caliph of Islam; and, thirdly, because he has got fundamentally sound ideas as to the principles on which the Empire should be governed. He may be a weak, timid, irresolute, inexperienced old man. But he is still the man on the throne, the legitimate heir and accepted representative of the House of Osman, the recognized chief of the Moslem world. By virtue of his position, at once secular and sacred, he counts for more than any other human unit in the Near East. It is in his name and by virtue of his delegated authority that government is carried on. Not even the incredible *betises* of some of the Young Turks have been able to rob His Majesty of the glamor and the glory that are inseparable from the person of the Padishah. Abdul Hamid traded on the credit of the position for over thirty years. Mehmed V. finds the prestige of the throne unimpaired in the eyes of the majority of his subjects, even by the crimes of his predecessor.

Far from being a conventional palace puppet, his English interviewer found the head of the Turkish Empire,

a real man—a man of slow, but steady intelligence; a man genial and sympathetic in temperament; a man modest and retiring rather than ambitious, but nevertheless a man capable of firm resolution, and not by any means incapable of conceiving a high ideal and adhering to his purpose with an altogether unexpected degree of firmness. Above all I found in him a saving sense of humor; a shrewd and kindly wit; a willingness to listen and to share ideas with a stranger. There was no affectation in the Sultan. He was a human being in a very difficult post, who rather wistfully welcomed any sincere converse on the duties and responsibilities of his great position. He is not a hustler like Mr. Roosevelt, nor a dramatic *entrepreneur* like the Kaiser, nor a complete man of the world like Edward VII. There may be about him a certain lack of alertness, born of long seclusion; but after all has been said, Mehmed V. is a good man—a kindly man; a man with a mind and a character of his own; a man with a conscience; and besides all that he is the man who more clearly than any other man whom I met in Turkey grasps with a kind of inherited instinct the only principles upon which it is possible to make the Ottoman Empire contented, prosperous, and strong. That such a man should occupy the throne at the present moment in the heart of the Near East is to me the most reassuring fact of the present situation.

What's the policy of Sultan Mehmed V.? It is first and foremost, we are told, the policy of a constitutional sovereign.

But in the second place it is a policy of one who, while being a loyally constitutional sovereign, determined to govern through his responsible Ministers, is a believing Moslem. Thirdly, the policy of the Sultan, as he explained it to me and as it has been expounded to me by one of the most trusted diplomatists in his service, is a policy of peace. So far from being responsible for the policy of Chauvinistic aggression which in the last two years has so profoundly discredited the governing junta at Salonica, it is regarded by the Sultan with frank and unconcealed abhorrence. His watchword is peace. Of course, if the integrity of his Empire was assailed or its interests unjustly attacked, Mehmed V. would not hesitate to use the effective instrument which Mahmoud Chefket Pasha is making perfect. But if he had to sanction war he would do so with a heavy heart. Peace, not war, is the policy to which he is devoted. This is not the expression of a mere empty platitude. The Sultan's idea of peace is twofold. So far as the European powers are concerned, he is for friendship with all and entangling alliances with none. . . . What is much more important than his views as to the relations between Turkey and the great powers is the conception, the statesmanlike conception, which he brought to the throne of reconstituting the protective unity of the old fabric of the Ottoman Empire by a policy of fraternal coöperation and alliance between Turkey and the Christian states which have been established on the site of Turkish provinces. The Sultan's dominant idea is the creation of a friendly coöperative union, rather than a federation between the Ottoman Empire on the one hand, and Bulgaria, Greece, Servia, and Montenegro on the other. Fourthly,

the Sultan is dead against the policy of enforcing uniformity of law, language, religion, or system upon all the races which make up his Empire.

One of the most disastrous mistakes of the Young Turks, says Mr. Stead, developing this idea, can be traced directly to their French education.



SULTAN MEHMED V.

Their political ideas were framed in the spirit of a French logician. They were so obsessed by the idea of uniformity that they went very near to sacrificing to their fetish the unity of the Empire. The Sultan was against this centralizing, Turkifying policy from the first. As constitutional monarch he was compelled to see it carried out in his name. But when in Albania and in Arabia it brought forth its fatal fruits in bloodshed, rapine, and revolt, he ventured to assert his early and unconquerable repugnance to the policy of Turkification. Upon this subject I had a very interesting and intimate conversation with His Majesty. I had been explaining the fundamental principles of the British Empire as those of liberty and self-government. The Sultan observed somewhat dryly that nations were sometimes like naughty children—a little whipping did them good. When I pointed to the good results which had followed the adoption of a Liberal policy in South Africa, the Sultan said, "I know all about General Botha and the Boers, but don't forget you had to whip them first." Then he went on to draw a parallel between British policy in South Africa and his own policy in Albania. He maintained that his policy in Albania was like ours in South Africa, and that the enthusiastic reception given to him by the Albanians when he visited Kossovo was a close parallel to the acceptance by the Boers of their position in the British Empire.

WHAT THE TURKS THINK ABOUT MOROCCO

SINCE the Turkish Revolution of 1908, it would appear that England has played poor politics on the shore of the Bosphorus, and that Germany has quite outclassed her in the affection of the entire Moslem world. So much so, indeed, that the Kaiser has been repeatedly called the "Protector of Islam." During the grand vezirat of Kiamil Pacha, the Ottoman Government had some inclinations toward England, but her attitude, after his downfall, changed considerably, as she intimated that she would not have any confidence in the new régime, unless such men as Kiamil Pacha, Kutshuk Said Pacha, at one time President of the Senate, both favorable to Great Britain, would belong to the new Cabinet. So much, at any rate, we gather from the press of Constantinople.

The Turks take more interest in Morocco than it is commonly supposed, and those who know of the gradual conquest of all North Africa—inhabited by Moslems—and the way this colonization has been accomplished, will not be surprised to learn the attitude of their press.

The *Jeune-Turc*, which, with the *Tanin*, the *Yeni Gazetta*, the *Sabah*, the *Ikdam*, the *Rénine*, and the *Tanzimat*, are ably edited, and devote most of their space to a defense of Moslem interests all over the world. This journal says, under the caption, "The Policy of Compensations":

We learn that Great Britain would like to benefit from the Moroccan question, to call a general

Congress and settle many others. . . . Such Congresses and treaties are worthless. . . . The treaty of Algieras has only recently been violated by the French Republic. . . . It is said that at such a convention, England would gladly let France and Germany make any kind of arrangement about the Kamerouns, while she would settle then and there all pending Asiatic and African questions and draw all the advantages to satisfy her imperialism. What else than a politic of compensation is there in an arrangement on such widely different matters, as Morocco, Persia, the Bagdad Railway and Equatorial Africa? . . . The only way is, to respect the treaty of Algieras, the integrity of Morocco and for France to withdraw her troops.

Bitterly attacking France, for her "injustice" to Morocco, the same journal says:

There is a rule, recognized by all, that no nation can impose her civilization upon another. And if there is any need of intervening in the name of civilization, in the affairs of some belated country, in order to legitimate this intervention, it must be collective. . . . France does in Morocco what she has done in Algeria and Tunisia: she is "Tunisifying" the Cherifian Empire. . . . And what atrocities has the French military column not done on its march? Sold for a few "centimes" women and children prisoners . . . ; they have shown a cruelty which is criticized even by French papers. . . . Have we forgotten the murder of the small King of Senoussi, of the contraband of arms to Morocco, of the protection accorded to Raisuli and other pretenders? Diplomacy, then, demands indemnities, as a new method of giving a country over to anarchy. . . . If these Moroccans were Frenchmen, defending their Eastern frontier, what brave heroes worthy of great monuments, would they not have been? . . . But in Morocco they are called bandits and fools.

THE COUNTER REVOLUTION IN RUSSIA AND ITS EFFECT ON THE JEWS

THE high hopes raised by the granting of a constitution and the creation of the Duma in Russia a few years ago have proved an illusion. Autocracy rides roughshod over both constitution and legislature. Agitation is again brewing among the laboring masses, owing to the unsatisfactory condition of things, and the government seems aiming anew to divert its course and allow it vent by its old cruel device of inciting the people to outrages against the Jews. We get a graphic portrayal of the present situation in an article contributed by K. Marski to the *Neue Zeit*, a Socialist organ published at Stuttgart.

When the first Duma assembled, on May 10, 1906, Liberal orators were firmly convinced that the Jericho walls of absolutism in Russia would crumble before the trumpet tones of

their eloquence. But Stolypin triumphed. Five years later, May 10, 1911, the third Duma dared to raise its voice against the government. And again Stolypin was the real victor. We have set forth in these pages at various times the details of the struggle between the Duma and the Premier. Now it has come about that both the Duma and the Council of the Empire have come out point-blank against the government. What has been the result? "Nothing," answer the government organs. The Premier and his cabinet remain calmly at the rudder. The Duma cannot overthrow him. "In Russia, thank Heaven, there is no such thing as Parliamentarism," declared Kokovzev, Minister of Finance, on a certain occasion in the Duma.

The Russian ship of state, then, offers a unique spectacle: the government has been defeated and it is triumphant. And the bourgeois parties in the Duma, instead of forging ahead to gain the fruits of their victory and actually overthrow the government, are afraid to make the slightest further advance. The fear of the masses entertained by the bourgeois majority in the Duma is at bottom far greater than their resentment against a government of coups d'état and the gallows. It is a fact, therefore, that no Duma is able to overthrow a ministry, still less to check effectually the prevailing trend in any way. In this condition of things what resource is left? The very thought throws the bourgeois parties into a mortal panic. And how, indeed, could they appeal to the former for aid since those parties are themselves the final product of Stolypin's coup d'état of June 16, 1907, which robbed the working masses of even the curtailed suffrage which they possessed during the first two Dumas!

The Russian bureaucracy, says this German writer further, has in the course of this counter-revolution exploited in turn every class and party of citizens—the military, the capitalist parties, the Junkers, and the hide-bound reactionaries. Stolypin alone was bold enough to characterize clearly the Russian constitution.

In replying to the interpellation in the Duma, he observed that the legislative bodies could, in their impotence, accomplish nothing of any consequence: what the Duma concluded seemed too radical for the Council of the Empire, while the acts of the latter were too reactionary for the Duma. The government could not stand indifferently by and see this vicious going around in a circle; it must perforce make the laws and have them executed, regardless of legislatures, presenting the measures to them only after their completion.

But the joy of the absolutists in their triumph over the law-making bodies is not unalloyed.

In actually lowering these to the position of subordinate advisory councils they have thrown off the veil of parliamentarism, woven by the spoutings of a hollow liberalism, and exposed the truth in all its nakedness. They are, on the other hand, no longer able to suppress completely the laboring masses who are rousing into life once more. The body-guard of the government, the Black Hundreds, are looking around, therefore, for a safety-valve, just as on the eve of 1905. That safety-valve is again to be Jew-baiting. "In an emergency," declared a member of the Right in the Duma, "the Jews are for us the line of least resistance." And a reactionary deputy, Schulgin, observed that "every revolution in Russia would proceed over Jewish corpses."

It is no accident, concludes Mr. Marski, that directly after the vote on May 10, members of the Right introduced a resolution in the Duma calling for an investigation into the alleged ritual murder at Kiev and indulged in speeches calculated to incite pogroms.

This kind of agitation is growing more and more intense in the Black Hundred baiting press. "The Government of the Czar is evidently at a new edition of the Kishinev pogrom of 1904." To people who can interpret history aright this means that the counter-revolution in Russia has "gradually run the course of its logical development, after which absolutism must tend toward a new downfall."

Legislation as to the Jewish Pale

The summary expulsion of Jews by the administration from various localities of Russia, and the extremely cruel measures used in the process of expulsion excites of late the comment of the leaders of intellectual Russia. Professor J. Gessen, an authority on Russian jurisprudence and a representative of the Constitutional-Democratic party in the second Duma, gives, in a recent issue of the *Russkaya Mysl*, a short survey of the history of the laws repressing and limiting the place of Jews in Russia. Tracing the history of this restrictive legislation, he informs us that it appears to have begun at the end of the eighteenth century, when, with the first division of Poland in 1772, Russia annexed the so-called White Russian provinces with a large Jewish population.

The laws restricting the locomotion of Jews in Russia were not invented in their original form for the Jews alone; for legislation restricted the liberty of locomotion of all subjects of Russia. This heirloom of the dark middle ages was once inculcated as a part of the national Russian system, but when with the flow of time under the influence of cultural and economic demands Russian life was rejuvenated, the civic state of the Jews was left unaltered.

The Jews in the above-named provinces were incorporated in the two official middle classes viz.: the "merchants" class, and the "commoners" class, whose members by the existing common laws were allowed to travel to cities and towns, but were forbidden to settle in the villages and hamlets.

When many of these Jews went to Moscow and other well-developed trade centers of central Russia their keen competition was at once strongly felt by the local tradesmen, and in reply to a purely businesslike petition of the Moscow merchants, the first restrictive law was passed by Catherine the Great in 1791, which forbade the Jewish merchants to settle in central Russia, and which opened up to them at the same time the newly conquered region to the north of the Crimea, in the south of Russia, then denominated as New Russia. We can easily judge from this that the only motive for this restriction was Catherine's well-known

eagerness to develop Russian trade, and it is a historical fact that she practiced similar methods on non-Jewish merchants also; so, for instance, she compelled a certain number of merchants to leave well-developed trade places and move to newly opened-up regions. And still this law of 1791 served as a foundation for the institution known as the Jewish Pale. Also the existing common law forbidding all "merchants" and "commoners" to live outside of cities and towns had a bad effect in this direction, because at that time it concerned only a very small part of the Russian nation; it enveloped the Jewish race as a whole, it bore a national character with them, and therein lie the reasons for the undesirable consequences, for the Jews were never again regarded by the government from the purely economical standpoint, and always ever since were treated as a race.

The first code of laws regarding the Jewish question was worked out in 1804 and revised in 1835. This code allowed temporary residence for Jewish merchants in certain cities. Since then the laws themselves have been very little altered except for the addition of further restrictions and very rare changes to the better, such as were made by Alexander II, who allowed educated Jews to reside in

cities outside of the Pale. The Pale itself was designated in 1835 in the limits of the ten Polish provinces and parts of the fourteen provinces in Southwestern Russia with the absolute denial to reside in villages and certain cities, also in the region within fifty miles of the Austrian and German frontiers.

At no time has the government exhibited any sound knowledge of the condition of the Jews and of the needs of the various localities. And thus it ordered over and over again the expulsion of Jews in great masses where it was an absolute physical impossibility to do so, being constantly informed by the local administration, which knew the exact state of affairs, that it demanded the impossible. Sheer misery and poverty predominate in the little towns within the Pale. Where the Jews live outside the Pale in any numbers they are the constant prey of and are at the mercy of the ignorant petty officers who literally plunder them for their right to live illegally outside of the Pale. From late despatches it appears that the government is still not satisfied with the miserable state of affairs and is tightening more and more the noose around the neck of this unfortunate race, the last proposal being to limit the credit of the Jewish merchants in the banking-houses.

SHOULD SPAIN INTERVENE IN PORTUGAL?

THAT Spanish intervention in the political destinies of Portugal would be advantageous for both countries is the theme of an article by Señor Julio Munzo in the *Revista Argentina de Ciencias Políticas* of Buenos Aires. The writer does not believe that the present republican government of Portugal is capable of effectively controlling the discordant elements unchained by the revolution, and in view of this fact he finds that Spain would be fully justified in enforcing the establishment of a more efficient government in the neighboring country. As to the character of such intervention Señor Munzo says:

An intervention having for its object the ruthless absorption of a nation which, thanks to its glorious navigators and its intrepid warriors, has rendered so many services to civilization, traversing with her ships seas never before navigated, would be a crime offensive to the feelings of all generous hearts and would constitute a last and fatal blow dealt to the special rights and privileges of the various ethnic groups inhabiting the Iberian Peninsula. . . . On the other hand, to intervene merely in order to impose a sovereign upon a nation which does not wish him, or will not support him, to embark in a war simply out of hatred for republican institutions, as in the days of Metternich, of the Holy

Alliance and of the Congress of Vienna, would be not only an anachronism but also a piece of folly.

Therefore, admitting the necessity for intervention and its justification, and not wishing to violate the autonomy of a country—of which, however, Mariano de Carvalho, a cabinet minister under the old régime, has said that it never, in the whole course of its history, enjoyed real vitality and had never been economically independent—but desiring to reconcile the true interests of the Spanish people with the scruples of those who oppose intervention, there remains for Spain but one solution, the restoration of the House of Braganza, under the condition that it form part of a federation which shall unite Spain and Portugal in relations similar to those under which Saxony and Bavaria form part of the German Empire.

This, and this alone, would be the way to unite two ancient and opposing historic currents, to satisfy the aspirations of those who favor the union of the Iberian peoples, without doing violence to Portuguese autonomy. From a political point of view, it will suffice to indicate the important consequences that may result from the Hispano-Portuguese confederacy for the various Iberian nationalities which, though subject to similar historic con-

ditions with Portugal, were not fortunate enough to preserve their independence. The presence of an autonomous nation in the Iberian group would be an instructive example which would appeal to Navarre, still enjoying some of the rights of a free nation, and to Catalonia which has been despoiled of these rights. Moreover, the principle of the existence of two separate but federated monarchies on the Iberian peninsula having been admitted, there would be no good reason for restricting the number, and who knows but that in giving satisfaction to the local patriotism of the Navarrese, the Basques and the

Catalonians, a solution might not be found for the dynastic disputes which have so often desolated the peninsula, and a means of satisfying the ambitions, or the rights, of those branches of the families of Brazaña and Bourbon which have been disinherited by changes in government during recent years?

In conclusion, the writer suggests that the union of Spain and Portugal might serve to improve the relations between the two great South American rivals, Argentina and Brazil, the former Spanish in language and culture, while the language and historic associations of the latter favor Portuguese influence.

OVERSEA BALLADS IN KENTUCKY VALLEYS

IN the sequestered valleys of eastern Kentucky one would hardly expect to find the folklore of the British Isles. Yet Prof. Hubert G. Shearin of Transylvania University, assures us, in the *Sewanee Review*, that it still lingers there "untouched and unchanged." Brought originally to Jamestown and Philadelphia by emigrants from England, Scotland, and Ireland, it has "radiated by oral transmission thence through the 'gaps' and 'breaks' of the Alleghany ranges into its present seat, the land of the 'Lonesome Pine' and 'Kingdom Come.'" It has been Professor Shearin's pastime for some years to gather the folk songs of this region; and he now has more than three hundred in his collection. The spirit of balladry is still vigorous in the district; and not only are the old songs transmitted, but new ones are created.

Prof. Shearin is eager to bring the reader face to face with this persistence in twentieth century America of the songs of our British ancestors, "believing that curiosity, if nothing deeper, will be evoked by acquaintance with them before they have faded into the shadows of the past."

A disaster in forest or mine, a murder or a quarrel, a county political campaign, in short, any unusual incident, is a ready source of inspiration to another "song-ballet," which, in lieu of newspaper or telegraph, becomes a very practical disseminator of local happenings and a real moulder of public opinion. Any social gathering, whether a group around a banjo-picker by the stove in a cross-roads store, or a "frolicking" among the young folks at their games and dances, is sure to call forth songs that thrill the lover of these native lyrics. To the thrum of banjo or "dulcimore" they are sung; or maybe it is a fiddle or accordion or mouth-harp; even in these latter degenerate days one finds an occasional cabinet organ from the metropolitan mail-order emporium.

The subjects of these mountain songs are of the most varied character, ranging from gold-seekers afloat upon the Spanish Main to canal-building in Pennsylvania. Professor Shearin confines himself in his article to "songs coming from the mother country on the lips of pioneers, to live for three hundred years thereafter by oral transmission solely;" and of these he has found thirty-seven. Thirty-four of them are English or Scottish, the remaining three being indubitably Irish. The former he divides into two classes: (1) those which can be identified by their parallels in printed editions; (2) those whose "original British variant is either lost or difficult of identification, yet which from internal evidence are undoubtedly insular." Of the first group nineteen are in the Professor's collection. Of these one of the favorites is "Barbara Allen's Cruelty," of which there are no fewer than six variants. All tell the same old story: how Sweet William slights Barbara; she forsakes him; he dies of a broken heart; she dies of remorse. The closing verses run:

O father, O father, come dig my grave,
Oh, dig it both deep and narrow;
For my Sweet William died in love,
And I will die in sorrow.

Sweet William was buried in the old church-tomb,
Barbara Allen in the church-yard by;
Out of William's grave grew a great red rose,
Out of Barbara Allen's a briar.

They grew and grew to the old church-top,
And till they couldn't grow any higher,
And at the end tied a true-love knot—
The rose wrapped round the briar.

Other ballads in this group are: "Lord Bateman," "The Bailiff's Daughter of Is-

lington," "The Cruel Mother," and "The Green Willow Tree."

Many obsolete words and phrases have survived in these Kentucky songs, the meaning of some of which is unknown to the minstrels themselves. Professor Shearin cites the following examples:

Last summer a gray-bearded old fiddler was singing for me "The Bailiff's Daughter of Islington." "What does that word Bailiff mean?" I asked him. "Oh, shucks," came his prompt and logical reply, "that's just in the song." Occasionally, however, an obsolete word is made over clumsily into the current vernacular. I recall a curious instance from "Lord Randall." The British version has these lines:

"Mother, make my bed soon;
I am weary of hunting, and fain would lie down."

My singer could not brook the meaningless "fain," so he sang, "and pains me lie down;" while another yet more curiously phrased it, "I faint and lie down."

The second group numbers fifteen, the scenes of five of which are laid in London; London Bridge, Newgate Prison, and St. Pancras Church being mentioned specifically. Others refer to Edinboro, Sheffield, Nottingham, "Domesse," and "Pershelvy." We can give only a summary of a few of these:

"The Rich Margent" (Merchant) thinks his pretty sixteen-year-old daughter ought to marry:

"Go dress yourself, Dinah, in rich cordelee (corde du laine);
I'll bring you a husband both gallant and gay.

"O father, O father, I hain't made up my mind;
For to get married I don't feel inclined."

Her obdurate parent cuts her off from her patrimony, and she poisons herself a few days later in the garden, where her lover Felix finds her.

"He called his dear Dinah ten thousand times o'er;
He kissed her cold corpse ten thousand times more.

He drank up the poison like a lover so brave—
Now Felix and Dinah lie both in one grave."

In "Jackaro" the only daughter of a rich London merchant loves a sailor-boy whom the father causes to be banished. Hearing her lover has gone to the wars in Germany, the maiden disguises herself and seeks enlistment. The recruiting officer says:

"Your waist it is too slender,
Your fingers they're too small,
Your cheeks too red and rosy
To face the cannon-ball,
To face the cannon-ball."

She succeeds in enlisting, however, under the name "Jackaro," and finds her lover among the wounded:

"She picked him up all in her arms
She carried him to the town,
Inquiring for a doctor
To heal his bloody wound,
Oh, to heal his bloody wound.

"This kipple [couple] they are suited
And always did agree,
And also they got married——
And it's why not you and me?
Oh, it's why not you and me?"

The three Irish ballads are: "Irish Molly O;" "The Wexford Girl;" and "William Reilly." The last named is indigenous to Ulster, and rests upon a historic basis. Reilly was a young Catholic farmer of this district. The daughter of a neighboring squire, named Foillard, a wealthy man of high Orange principles, falls in love with him, induces him to accept rich presents from her, and to fly with her by night from her father's house:

"I'll leave my father's dwelling, forsake my
mother's fee,
So through the howling wilderness, and married
we will be."
Her old father followed after them with seven well-armed men;
Overtaken was poor Reilly with his lovely Polly Ann.

Disappointed that Reilly, on being brought to trial, is sentenced to transportation instead of death, the old man accuses him of theft:

Then up spoke her old father, these words that he did say:
"He's taken from me gold watches, he's taken from me gold rings;
He took a silver broochpin, 'twas worth a thousand pounds;
I'll have the life of Reilly, or spend ten thousand pounds."

The girl swears that she had herself given the things to her lover as presents, and secures his release.

Professor Shearin's regret will be readily understood when he remarks that "in another generation or two these songs will be but a memory in the Kentucky highlands; the clank of the colliery, the rattle of the locomotive, the roar of the blast-furnace, the shriek of the factory-whistle, and, alas, even the music of the school-bell, are already overwhelming the thin tones of the dulcimore and the quavering voice of the Last Minstrel of the Cumberlands."

THE CORONATION AS SEEN BY A FRENCHMAN

THAT it was not natural for an Englishman to love a Frenchman, and *vice versa*, is a saw hurled almost inevitably in discussions anent the sincerity of the *entente cordiale*; but saws have a way of going out of fashion, and this one, in these days of a Canadian Premier at once so essentially Gallic and so loyally British as Sir Wilfrid Laurier, is as discredited as the Grecian bend or the crinoline or other lapses of our grandparents. The pages of M. le Comte d'Haussonville, of the Académie Française, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, on the coronation of King George reveal deep understanding and fellow-feeling, illumined by enthusiasm and, rarest of all, a love for London as complete as a Cockney's.

M. d'Haussonville follows the holiday folk in the Strand and in Fleet Street among the venders of programs, ribbon badges and flowers, the crowd whose chief characteristics of self-respect and self-restraint he finds so interestingly contrasted by their real strength that could so easily degenerate into violence. The policemen he admires for their admirable discipline and courtesy, and even with the patient sandwich-men, with the advertisements for the tribunes, he fraternally sympathizes.

Where this crowd seems most at ease, really at home, is in Saint Paul's, on the benches, listening in respectful silence to an office that happens to be rather colorless and monotonous, like our Matins or Laudes; but they listen with awed wonder, comparing, I am sure, mentally, the service with that of their village or town, and finding it much more beautiful, which all adds to their admiration for the King's city. I see before me, I imagine,—for after all I cannot know,—all that which is most solid, respectable and ancient in England. In the evening I mingled with a crowd of quite another kind, and certainly it ill behoves me to complain, for it was a Shakespearean motley. The sight was of a real splendor. The great canopy of blue gauze shaded the electric light, and rendered Albert Hall extremely brilliant, and at the same time in perfect taste. The aspect of this immense salon, when at midnight the sixteen quadrilles were danced by the descendants of the greatest families in Shakespeare's time, was grandiose and unique. It was a conception combined of legitimate literary pride, of patriotism and aristocratic respect for the past which suggested the idea to the committee, for the great world's merrymaking was essentially English.

At the Abbey, the distinguished French visitor was charmed by the police order measures, thanks to which his carriage was not delayed, and by the reception at the entrance.

One would say they were young men of good family assisting their father to receive, as they

called attention to the steps and apologized for the draughts as I was escorted down the corridors to my excellent place on the second tier of the first tribune opposite that of the suites of the foreign princes. It would be impossible to be more attentive to guests. At once I was struck by the perfect taste of the ensemble. It was no easy matter to build in a Gothic church tribunes in accord with the lines and to decorate them so as not to violate the severe ecclesiastic style, but the double problem was admirably solved. In this immense symphony of draperies of blue and of the gray that shaded imperceptibly into the ancient stone, the sole note of color was in the crimson of the thrones. I recalled the delicate coloring of the great English painters. For taste, measure, and harmony of tones, it was perfect.

M. d'Haussonville was struck by the great rôle played by the Church in the ceremony and by the simultaneous affirmation of the rights of the King and of the people—here not a vain word, but an every-day reality. "The mutual confidence that this accord will last constitutes the grandeur of the ceremony to-day, as for more than a century it has made the strength of England."

Apropos of Queen Mary's part in the ceremony:

If the Anglican Church, which has given so many great men to history and can boast to-day of such noble virtues, has lost any part of her dominion over the nation, there was to-day at Westminster at least one true believer. It was the Queen. I could only see the King when leaning forward, but I had a full view of Her Majesty. By the inclination of her head, by the attitude of her entire figure, I had the impression that in her inmost thought she received indeed a sacrament, and all that I hear of her convinces me that she will exercise that powerful and sweet influence of piety and virtue which is in every land the honor of woman.

After the ceremony a Salvation Army major led the visitor through the slums, where the poorest windows were illuminated with tallow candles or tiny oil lamps.

Before the Piccadilly and Oxford Street illuminations I should have gaped as at many others I have seen, but this walk through the slums enabled me to see that in the poorest quarters, and more heartily, perhaps, than in Mayfair, the people were celebrating their King's crowning. The provincial towns had celebrations like London, and a sort of wave of monarchism swept over all England. Never has the royal oak been more flourishing. It can withstand the wind, storms and even earthquake—it will not be uprooted. What great progress the imperial idea has made in England in the past ten years is clearly seen by the royal procession. It is the celebration of the Dominions almost as much as of the Isles. Everyone agreed that the Indian division was the most brilliant.

Of the sovereigns, M. d'Haussonville says in conclusion:

The King is, first of all, a sailor, already a great factor in popularity, a model father and husband, for which the pious and worthy element will commend him all the more because there are some who complain of the austerity of the future court. Public opinion, however, will not support these cavillers. All the duties of his kingship will be scrupulously fulfilled, and these duties will fill his life and the Queen's, brought up by her mother in the active practice of public charity. George V, in short, is a

true Englishman, in his habits, his love of sport and his attachment to tradition, but at the same time he feels democratic needs. It was at his personal wish that a certain number of representatives of the trades unions were invited to the coronation and to the garden party on the 27th. He will work more than play and show himself the worthy grandson of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert.

Two great forces are still intact in England, the monarchical sentiment and religious faith. At the most glorious period of her history France knew this union. England retains it still, and therein lies the secret of her great strength.

THE SUBSIDENCE OF THE SOIL IN THE NETHERLANDS

IN *De Ingenieur*, S. Blaupot ten Cate discusses the proofs which establish the fact of a gradual lowering of the soil level in the Netherlands,—if not general, at any rate near the coast. This subsidence is not greater than 0.2 meter (8 inches) in a century, if we make use of the average figure for the past five centuries,—for it is impossible to determine whether the movement takes place at a constant rate.

The writer notes the following well-known facts to support his conclusions:

1.—The sinking of the ruins of Roman structures which in the third century were still in use and which could not have been so if they had been at their present level, since they would have been covered by the sea at high water. The subsidence of the soil about these various buildings since the third century has been between 1.5 and 4.0 meters (5½ and 13 feet).

2.—The formation of the Zuyder Zee and of the Dollart Zee in the Netherlands, as well as of the Gulf of Jade in Germany, which have taken place within comparatively recent times.

3.—The sinking of certain drained lowlands of Zeeland, estimated, with a fair degree of probability, at from 30 to 35 centimeters (12 to 14 inches), during the last two centuries.

The writer adduces another proof of the subsidence of the soil in giving a novel explanation of the formation of certain plateaus which are to be found in considerable number along the low and very flat coastal plains of Friesland and Groningen. This explanation, based upon historical evidence, measurements, geological and archeological researches, enables him to estimate the extent of the lowering of the soil level of the Netherlands since the first century B. C. During

the last two centuries sinking has taken place, according to the figures deduced from these observations, to the extent of 36 centimeters (a little over 14 inches).

These plateaus, called "terpen," are generally circular in plan. They are raised from 4 to 5 meters (13 to 16 feet) above the surrounding plain, and their area is, in some cases, as much as 15 hectares (37 acres). Contrary to what has usually been supposed, they are not artificial refuges where the people could betake themselves and their cattle in case of inundation. What are apparently refuges of this kind do exist, but they have a character entirely different from the "terpen." According to the author, the latter were pasturages whither at one time the first inhabitants of the country—nomads—came each year to spend the summer. During these early times the "terpen" must have been merely natural prominences which would be swept over by the waves in case of storms, and, consequently, could not have been inhabited during the winter.

The sinking of the soil took place slowly and the generation of nomads gave place to agriculturists. Dikes were built around the "terpen," first to protect the summer pasturage, then to make them habitable in winter. Finally, the soil was raised back of the dikes, as is always the case where it is occupied by a dense population. In addition, the inhabitants conveyed earth to them, generally selecting the material with care, for the soil is more charged with lime compounds than is that of the neighboring lands, and is rich in shells; besides the earth was enriched from the manure of the cattle. For this reason, the soil from some of the "terpen" which are not occupied is actually often used by the farmers of the neighborhood to enrich their fields.

The writer reviews the consequences springing from the sinking of the soil level for the great engineering works entered upon as planned in the Netherlands, and points out the difficulties likely to arise. Among these undertakings may be mentioned schemes of sewage disposal, of recovery of land from the

sea, dike construction, canals, locks, the draining of swamp-land and the formation of farms, and particularly the great work of recovering the bed of the Zuyder Zee, which has been the earnest subject of study for many years and which will certainly be carried to completion.

HONDURAS, A COUNTRY OF MANY POSSIBILITIES

THE proposed new treaties between the United States and Nicaragua and Honduras will doubtless direct attention to the last-named country. Although in point of size it ranks third in the group of Central American countries, less is known of Honduras than of its neighbor republics. It is a country of immense possibilities and of great latent wealth and power; and for some time past there have been many indications of a commercial awakening in the Republic. Voicing a similar view is an article in the *Bulletin* of the Pan American Union on "A New Chapter in the History of Honduras," which says that "with the appointment of Dr. Francisco as Provisional President of the Republic, there has developed within the country a renewed spirit of hope and optimism bent on uniting and harmonizing the various elements in its new lease of life."

Honduras has an area of 46,250 square miles—an extent equaling the combined areas of Pennsylvania and Rhode Island. Its political divisions are sixteen departments and one territory; and these are further subdivided into districts. The total population is estimated at about 745,000. Railroad development in Honduras is still in its infancy; and the only means of securing reliable information as to its commercial conditions are journeys on horse- or mule-back into the interior. Mr. Arminius T. Haeberle, the energetic United States consul at Tegucigalpa, has made several such trips; and the *Bulletin* article is based on his account of one of them. Tegucigalpa is the capital; its name signifies "the hills of silver" and was bestowed upon it by the Spaniards when, "having been led across unknown mountain ranges by the gleam and dream of the hills of silver," they founded the city in 1578. It has an elevation of almost 3500 feet; and Mr. Haeberle describes it as "the home of 13,890 souls, a delightful place in the tropics, where every prospect pleases, with an abundance of sunshine from October until May, and with

patios full of flowers all the year round, with glowing sunsets and cool nights."

Next to Tegucigalpa, the most progressive section is the Department of Comayagua, whose capital, of the same name, is regarded as the most logical site for the terminus of a railway from the north coast or for the chief distributing point of the long-looked-for Inter-oceanic Railway, to connect the north coast with the south. Although chiefly an agricultural district, the Department possesses no fewer than 97 mines, including 55 gold; 10 gold and silver; 8 silver; 20 gold, silver, and copper; 3 gold and copper; and 1 gold, silver, and iron. The most fertile valley is that of Siguatepeque, which abounds with mahogany, cedar, a dark hardwood, the wild plum and fig, and many other trees. The agricultural methods are very crude. Mr. Haeberle says:

Instead of cultivating the valleys, farming is carried on in the mountains or hills, where the soil is very fertile. . . . A small patch of ground is cleared and burned, thus destroying all weeds. The corn is then planted and grows well. But as the grass begins to grow the next year, the patch is abandoned and another is burned instead. . . . Each farmer raises merely enough to supply his person or the local demand.

Honduras has a flourishing "Panama hat" industry, Santa Barbara being the center.

About 15,000 of these hats are made annually by the women of Santa Barbara. The palm leaf, from which they are made, is called "junco." The most tender leaves are selected and exposed to sulphur smoke, moisture, and the rays of the sun. The price is about 18 cents gold for two dozen leaves, the amount needed for one hat. It takes about two weeks to make an ordinary hat and one month to make a fine one.

A round block, called "horma," is used as a form for making the crown. After this part is finished a table is used, provided with one or more holes, into which the crown is dropped and the rim woven on top of the table. These hats are sold at from \$1.20 to \$14, according to their quality. They are made during the wet season, as the straw breaks during the dry. Even in the wet season a

damp cloth is constantly used to moisten the straw while weaving. When they are finished, they are placed in a large box and again subjected to sulphur fumes, after which they are ready for the market.

At Comayagua, the ancient capital of Honduras—Tegucigalpa did not become the capital till 1880—the cathedral, 302 years old, still stands, surrounded with massive ruins pointing to a flourishing past. The town is in the center of a fertile valley 42 by 24 miles in extent, and producing sugar-cane, coffee, rubber, vanilla beans, and an abundance of medical plants. The valley, traversed by 19 streams, has an abundance of water which might easily be used for motive power. Near the town is a distillery of *guaro*, or native rum, the manufacture of which is a Government monopoly from which is derived an annual revenue of about \$400,000. Contracts for one year are awarded in different districts; and the product is examined by Government inspectors.

In the Yaguare valley, about 20 miles east of Tegucigalpa, the agricultural methods are

more progressive. Here also are to be found the most modern flour-mills in Honduras, and the largest *guaro* distillery in the interior. Here, too, is an excellent locality for sugar-cane.

Summing up the possibilities of development, the *Bulletin* says:

Honduras offers, first and foremost, a territory admirably adapted to the cultivation of sugar-cane, coffee, beans, bananas, tobacco, rubber, cocoanuts, etc. Immense tracts of timber land are available, which should afford profitable investment. The Republic has considerable excellent agricultural and grazing lands. . . . And, finally, there are the mineral resources. Gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, tin, platinum, quicksilver, coal, are all known to occur in the country, and only because of inadequate means of communication has their exploitation been retarded.

The Government is now busily engaged in road construction, and, labor being very cheap and abundant, the preliminary work of opening up mines may be carried on with comparatively small capital.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN RUSSIA

A BRIEF survey of the development of opportunities for higher education for Russian women is given by Professor M. Kovalevsky, in a recent issue of the *Vyestnik Yevrope*. He does it apropos of a new project that has been passed by the Duma and the Imperial council.

The movement to place higher education within the reach of women appears to have begun in Russia in the sixties of the last century, when a committee consisting of three prominent educators was appointed by the government to investigate this question. This committee brought out a most favorable report, saying that no serious reason was to be found for denying to women the right to attend the universities and to teach in the secondary schools. Because of a reactionary turn in the government nothing was done then to actually admit women to the universities. In regard to secondary education for girls, Russia was, however, in the seventies, in advance of all European nations. This statement of the government seems to have been corroborated by John Stuart Mill in one of his works. The "gymnasias" for girls were founded very liberally throughout the country, and were conducted in such an excellent way that they served as models for the Prussian "*Hohere Tochtterschulen*," when these were organized in 1872.

The aim of the above-mentioned project is to change the existing system, which allows men to work only for diplomas in teaching in the higher institutions of university rank, and

which leaves to women the right only of studying medicine and of acquiring first the physician's diploma and earning the doctor's degree by defending a dissertation. This is the general system prevailing in the Russian medical schools, which do not give the M. D. degree directly upon the completion of the course.

This project shows how far in this matter of the higher education for women Russia at the present day is behind the other civilized nations of the world and its own official wishes of as early as 1861. Up to the present time the Russian universities have pursued this course, whether it was or was not legal for them to admit women, although as far as they themselves were concerned they were always in favor of admission.

The author further expresses his surprise that the good results reached by Switzerland and France were not taken note of by the Russian Government. He is especially elated over the splendid results in the United States and Norway. He quotes the reports of certain officials of Cornell University and of Northwestern University, at Evanston, Ill., the well-known advocates of co-education in the United States. Sweden, in the eighties, had the only woman in Europe occupying a professional chair—it was the talented Russian mathematician and author,

Sophia Kovalevska, professor of higher mathematics at the University of Stockholm.

The Russian legislator treats the question of education for women very cautiously, following Germany rather than France, Switzerland, England, the United States, and Scandinavian countries. In the project passed by the Imperial council nothing is said as to what professions higher education should lead women. The question is left open in regard to all professions save two—teaching and medicine. The law acknowledges the woman physician and teacher. The law wishes to see women teaching not only in the lower, but also in the higher grades of the secondary schools. But it does not concern itself with the question where women are to get their preparation for the State examinations—whether in the universities side by side with men, or in institu-

tions for women only. At the present time the Female Medical Institute in St. Petersburg is the school giving medical degrees to women. In St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, and Odessa there are the so-called "Higher Courses for Women," which give advanced courses in natural, mathematical and other sciences, but give no degree or official diploma.

The new project now allows women to study with the men in the universities and to take the state examinations leading to teaching diplomas. It also provides for equal pay and pension for men and women teachers. The measure is liberal enough in itself, but it is improbable that it will meet the necessary approbation from the reactionary officialdom at St. Petersburg.

THE DARDANELLES AND THE BOSPHORUS: AN ITALIAN VIEW

NOW that some doubts are felt as to the efficacy of the reforms clariomed by the Young Turk party, other problems of the near East naturally surge to the foreground. Signor Pietro Fea, in the *Rassegna Nazionale*, studies the question of the Straits, with the recent book of M. Gorainoff on the entire diplomatic correspondence preserved in the Imperial Archives at St. Petersburg as text.

M. Gorainoff's publication of the correspondence, with the notes personally affixed by the Czars, gave curious details on Russia's changing policy from the end of the 18th century, when Turkey lost the Crimea and her undisputed sway over the Black Sea, until the recent unsuccessful attempt of the Imperial Russian Chancellery to revise existing treaties at the time of Austria's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

As long as the Black Sea was entirely surrounded by the territory of one nation it was like a lake, and no other power had any right whatsoever to lay any claim whatsoever upon it, and the sovereign nation had the sole authority to decide as to the admission into the sea through the straits of the merchant ships of any other nation. As to warships there could be no discussion. But as soon as two nations owned territory bordering on the sea, a conflict inevitably arose between them as to the predominating influence on the sea itself and as to its outlets—the natural means of communication with the Mediterranean. The one—Russia—had and still has a very great interest in securing free passage through the straits in order to communicate by sea with the entire world and concentrate at will on one point, according to her military or naval exigencies, her naval forces divided between the Baltic and the Black Seas; the other—Turkey—had and has a still greater inter-

est in denying a foreign fleet access into the heart of her realm and passage through her capital itself, a few hundred yards from the seat of government and the palace of the Sultan.

By force and by diplomacy Russia has pursued her aim. Peter the Great is said to have suggested the conquest of Constantinople and the Dardanelles, and the imperial chancellery has labored for a century to effect an alliance in which Turkey should be guaranteed her territorial integrity and in return should permit Russia unrestrained ingress and egress through the straits. In 1798, the Sultan asked the aid of the Czar against the French expedition to Egypt, and the Russian fleet was sent from the Black Sea to the Bosphorus and the Mediterranean to protect Constantinople from a possible French aggression. Russia obtained by this alliance the right of passage for eight years, which was renewed in 1805 for nine years longer. Turkey, in fear of Napoleon, broke this pact in 1807, closed the straits to Russian ships, and in consequence Constantinople sustained the combined attack of the Russian and English fleets. After the peace of Tilsit, Turkey, isolated by the Franco-Russian alliance, turned to England and in a treaty with her new friend undertook to close the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles to warships of all the powers, including Russia. In 1829, Russia, on the march to Constantinople, defeated Turkey in two campaigns and obliged her to sign the Adrianople agreement not to examine the Russian merchant ships. This clause allowed Russia to pass off warships as traders. Four years later, the sultan again appealed to his foe against the Pasha Mahomet Ali. The Czar sent the Black Sea fleet and in return extorted the celebrated Unkiar-Iskélessi treaty, which in substance put Turkey under the Russian protectorate and closed the Straits to warships of all other Occidental powers. Mahomet Ali revolted again in 1840, secretly aided by France; and Russia, preferring that the Turkish Government remain in weaker hands, approached Austria and England to effect a joint diplomatic move against the aggression aided by France. In July, 1840, at London, the powers, excepting

France, agreed to assist the Sultan against his rebellious subjects, who, subsequently abandoned by France, renounced his ambitious designs. In 1841, a second conference, at which France, also, assisted, confirmed the principle of the closing of the straits to warships of all nations, except in case of a war in which Turkey should take part.

Other clauses restored to the Ottoman Empire full right to visit the merchant ships of all nations plying the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and thus deprived Russia of her means of eluding the prohibition of warships. Russia, dissatisfied with the treaty, returned to her policy of 1828-9, defied Europe, attacked the Turkish fleet at Sinope and brought on the Crimean War. The Treaty of Paris in 1856, that put an end to the struggle, declared the Black Sea neutral waters and forbade any power to keep warships there. Russia and Turkey were permitted only a limited number of warships for the protection of their customs and fisheries, but Turkey of course could build up her fleet in the Sea of Marmora and on the Bosphorus, while this was not possible for Russia. M. Gorainoff relates the exclamation of Alexander II seven years later: "I signed the treaty of Paris and it was a cowardly action."

In 1870, the Czar found the moment opportune to send a declaration to the powers that he was no longer bound by the Treaty of Paris in regard to his sovereignty of the Black Sea. The Conference at London was obliged to legalize this defection, but exacted, however, the retention of the principle of the closing of the Straits, which, notwithstanding the victory of Russia over Turkey in 1877-78, is still in force.

Signor Fea quotes the remarks of Monsieur Gorainoff apropos of the hostile attitude of the powers toward Russia in 1877-78. After the great losses sustained in that campaign only the opening of the straits to the Black Sea fleet would have been a satisfactory result. Owing to England's menaces, Russia renounced this question forever.

"Forever," says Signor Fea in conclusion, "is perhaps too much to say, but the intrinsic difficulty of the problem, not premeditated malice, was the cause of the powers' attitude. One must consider that Europe's suspicion of Russia is an inevitable result, not of an unreasoning hostility, but of the enormous actual power and of the incomparably greater future possibilities of the gigantic Romanoff Empire." Europe cannot forget that fifty years ago Russia had only sixty million inhabitants, and that to-day she has 120 millions, and that, given her vast

territory, this rapid increase may be considered without future bounds. And Europe must think of the consequent danger to her own independence. The result of the Russo-Japanese War has proved that this danger is more remote than it was believed, but in this sphere of problems, every patriot must be far-seeing, and the life of nations is measured by centuries. M. Nelidoff's celebrated note requiring the free passage for the Russian warships, excluding those of all other nations, can evidently never be granted by Western Europe. The other solution opening unconditionally the straits to all warships of all nations will probably never be attained so long as Turkey exists—or any independent state with a government at Constantinople. Even M. Gorainoff remarks: "Nothing could be more unpleasant for the Sultan than to see the fleets of all the nations maneuvering before the walls of his palace without even asking his permission." Without mortal injury to Ottoman independence, unrestrained passage up the Bosphorus cannot be admitted either for Russia alone or for all the nations. This is the real cause of opposition to Russia, and not the exaggerated fear of Russia's approach to the Mediterranean as Gorainoff seems to think. Besides, if existing conditions constitute unquestionably a check to Russia in that she cannot use the Black Sea fleet for other purposes but coast defense in event of war with Turkey, Russia must think that in case of any war with any other power, the *status quo* is a guarantee of protection against any hostile fleet intending to damage her southern provinces, to besiege Odessa or attack Sebastopol. And in case of a war in which Turkey would share as ally against Russia, the treaties would become, as Lord Salisbury had to confess in 1885, "pure theory."

"Since 1856 there have been created two more states on the shores of the Black Sea, Roumania and Bulgaria, the Suez canal has been opened, but the solution then decided upon and actually in force still seems not only the best, but the only one if the autonomy of the Balkan kingdoms is not to become a mere fiction."



NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Efficient Control of National Banks

A SUM of more than \$2,000,000,000 measures the liability which the law imposes upon the 600,000 odd holders of the shares of this country's national banks.

If surplus and undivided profits be taken account of, a grand total of the liabilities of all the banks is nearly \$3,000,000,000, a sum for which nearly 62,000 directors are responsible to the stockholders.

Total deposits in these banks are more than \$5,300,000,000, a sum which represents the interest of over 9,000,000 depositors in sound management.

And the sum of all of the banks' resources is nearly \$10,250,000,000, the measure of the whole country's interest in these national institutions.

Such figures are imposing. They were used recently at a meeting in Philadelphia to impress upon an assemblage of national bank examiners the importance of their putting forth their best efforts to secure more efficient directoral control of the banks. Comptroller of the Currency Murray had only a little while previously instructed the examiners to inform the managements of institutions in their respective jurisdictions that, in cases where there was known to be a tendency on the part of directors to regard their offices as mere sinecures, the banks concerned would be classified as "weak" and subjected to four searching examinations a year.

Several times in the past this magazine has commented on the fact that Comptroller Murray from the very beginning of his administration has insisted upon bank directors who direct. And his businesslike methods employed to secure the proper kind of management and to minimize the proportion of failures have been held up as examples for private investors to follow in conducting their affairs.

The business of banking has felt the blight of "wild-cat" promotion just as other forms of business. Mr. Murray's vigilance, however, is rapidly putting an end to it. When a promoter is granted a bank charter nowadays he must have first convinced the Comptroller that his financial record is a good one and

that the community in which he proposes to do business is actually in need of banking facilities. More than 200 applications for charters have been refused during the past year, mostly from localities in the West and South. The number granted is unprecedentedly low, as will be seen by a comparison of the figures of organizations in the first seven months of the last four years as follows:

1911—146;	1910—200;
1909—192;	and 1908—230.

Bank Shares as Investments

THERE is one characteristic in particular about the shares of a sound, well-managed bank which makes them attractive to investors. It is always possible for a holder of such shares to know exactly how his investment stands—to know that his bank's liabilities are covered by nothing else but tangible assets. Questionable items of all sorts, such as overvaluations of property and plant, good will, and so on, which so frequently make balance sheets, especially those of industrial companies, impossible of accurate interpretation, find no place in the financial statements of banking institutions.

Gilt-edge stocks of this kind, however, do not yield very much. Many of them, in fact, sell on as low an income basis as the best of savings-bank bonds. Using a dozen or more issues of representative New York Clearing House Association members as a basis of computation, it is found that the average net return on shares of institutions in the big financial centers is in the neighborhood of $4\frac{1}{8}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. It is possible to get yields from that on up to 5 per cent.—and all on shares of conservatively conducted banks.

How well the average investor understands the important element of risk which attaches to stocks in this category is doubtful. At any rate, not a few recent inquiries received by this magazine have given evidence of a tendency to ignore the double liability which is always imposed upon holders of the stocks of national banks and in the majority of cases upon holders of the shares of state institutions. This "uncalled liability," as it is technically termed, means that in case of failure or liquidation from any cause, if assets

have become impaired and are not sufficiently large to offset liabilities, stockholders may be assessed up to the par value of their holdings for the purpose of making good the deficit. It constitutes a risk which, fortunately, is nearly always remote, but authorities assert that it helps, nevertheless, to keep the average prices for bank stocks lower than it would be otherwise.

Another thing which the prospective investor in bank shares should always bear in mind is that such securities are less "liquid" than almost any other kind. That is, they are less readily converted into cash in case of the holder's need for funds. No general market exists for them and an expert states that no broker can create one. Such shares, then, are essentially investments for income and, as such, should at best make up only a relatively small proportion of the average investor's total holdings of securities.

Regulation That Counts

AN interesting analogy may be drawn between Comptroller Murray's activities in keeping a check on bank promotion and certain activities of our public service commissions.

A short time ago the New York State Commission published a decision fraught with a great deal of significance to investors. It was a decision denying the application of a new railroad company for permission to construct a double-track road across the State from Buffalo to Troy.

Here are some of the reasons which the commission gave for its action:

1. Existing facilities are adequate.
2. The new road would cost several millions more than its promoters estimated.
3. The company could not obtain enough business to pay operating expenses and a reasonable return on the capital invested; therefore, it would be bankrupt from the beginning.
4. The promoters failed to show financial ability sufficient to justify the belief that they could construct the road at all.

Thus, the Public Service Commission appears to have acted on the same theory as the one involved in the opinion held by the Comptroller of the Currency, that "the time to close weak banks is before they are opened."

In the judgment of the commission the chances were that the railroad in question could never have been much more than a phantom. Doubtless, however, the promoters would have found it possible to sell stock

and bonds to the public. The ultimate result would have been a lot of unfortunate investment experience for a good many people.

Standard Oil "ex-Subsidiaries"

A NEW definition will have to be written into future editions of the dictionaries containing investment terms. Most investors probably know what is meant when they see such and such a stock quoted "ex-dividend," or bonds "and interest." But there are doubtless many to whom the quotation "ex-subsiaries" will prove something of a poser.

This new term, as it is now used, is narrow in its application, but it bids fair to come into wider usage. It has been invented to facilitate the buying and selling of Standard Oil stock under the peculiar conditions which grew out of the Supreme Court's decision last June, ordering a dissolution of the company.

It will be recalled that that part of the company's organization which came under the ban of the law comprises the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey as the "parent" or "holding" concern and some thirty odd subsidiary corporations, the stock ownership of which the "parent" company was directed to relinquish. The New Jersey corporation, whose stock it is that the public owns, will not go out of existence, for, besides being a "holding" company, it is the owner of several valuable manufacturing plants.

Therefore, in view of the approaching disintegration, it has become necessary to fix two different valuations for the Standard Oil stock that is known in the investment markets: one valuation based upon the earning power of the company, principally as a manufacturing concern; another valuation based upon that earning power together with the rights of the old holders of the stock to participate in the pro rata distribution of the subsidiary companies' shares which it is expected will be effected about December 1st.

The quotation of Standard Oil stock, "ex-subsiaries," refers, then, to the stock as it will stand after the final steps in the company's dissolution have been taken. Thus, assuming an arbitrary market valuation of \$665 a share under the old form of organization, and of \$325 a share for the "rights" of the holders to receive the various odd lots of constituent companies' stock, Standard Oil Company of New Jersey shares under the new order of things should have a valuation of \$340 each.

Holders of the stock of the American To-

bacco Company, which is also going through a reorganization in accordance with a decree of the Supreme Court, may soon find it necessary to familiarize themselves with this new method of quotation. And it is possible, too, that as other big corporate organizations in the industrial world have their affairs brought under the review of the courts—as it is not unlikely some of them will, sooner or later—the term “ex-subsidiaries” will become an indispensable addition to the investor’s vocabulary.

An Argument for Publicity

USE of the word “arbitrary” in any mention of money valuations of Standard Oil stock happens to be peculiarly fitting. “Arbitrary” is defined in the dictionaries as referring to something “not bound by rules.” There have, in truth, been few rules, in accordance with which the intrinsic value of these shares could be determined with exactness. At any rate, the rule to which investors have been taught to attach the greatest amount of importance in this connection—the rule of earning power—has been singularly impossible of intelligent application to Standard Oil stock.

Only once in its history (about five years ago) did this company see fit to make any detailed statement of income and expenditures. It has never taken its stockholders and the public into its confidence with reference to other essential details of its business. It is said, indeed, that there exist not a few important facts about its vast organization which even the Government’s probers failed to bring to light. Standard Oil has been the notorious example of a foe to publicity of corporation affairs, in striking contrast to such companies as the United States Steel Corporation, whose reports are considered models of informative documents relating to industrial enterprise.

Once upon a time Standard Oil made application to have its shares listed on the New York Stock Exchange. The rules of that institution require as a prerequisite for “making a market” for corporation shares, a good deal of pertinent information about financial condition, and so on. The company took thought again and withdrew its listing application. Its shares have since been the principal ones to lend dignity to New York’s curb market. And, as it developed during the course of the trial of the Government’s suit, the underlying motives for the pursuit of this anti-publicity policy were what, in reality, furnished the sure ground for invok-

ing against the company the penalties provided by the Sherman law.

But there are those who will exclaim, What need have Standard Oil stockholders had for all this kind of information? Have they not been annually assured that their company’s net profits were far and away greater than the \$40,000,000 required for the payment of the 40 per cent. dividends? And has not the enormous accumulated wealth—that is, the wealth commonly believed to be possessed by the corporation—always baffled the understanding of the average man of affairs? All this might be granted. It might even be said that Standard Oil stockholders were justified in resting in contentment over the sterling character of their investment. But the simple fact remains that the precedent set by this company in respect of publicity is a bad one—a fact which, in the light of current financial history, is being appreciated more than ever before.

Were such a precedent to be followed by corporations generally, chaos would reign in the investment world. Values of all securities would have to be fixed more or less arbitrarily. Hope would in all likelihood be capitalized to a greater extent than it now is. Prices would reflect in a larger sense the mere expectations of things, which ought to be clearly set forth—such things as, for example, in the case of Standard Oil, the company’s ability to continue the payment of the same dividends under the new conditions as were paid under the old.

As this issue of the magazine went to press, comment like the following was being made by the chroniclers of financial news on the market for Standard Oil stock: “No one can give any sensible reason why any of the shares now being traded in should sell at one price instead of another. That conclusion is the one generally accepted in Wall Street.”

And “Wall Street” usually is not lacking in reasons for prices.

James J. Hill—Prophet of Business

MR. JAMES J. HILL, chairman of the board of the Great Northern Railway, whose reputation as a prophet of business has been referred to in these pages on several occasions during the past year or more, has again furnished bankers, merchants and manufacturers with food for thought.

This time there is a refreshing note in what he has to say about conditions, notwithstanding he is not an optimist on the immediate future. For he separates himself from

the crowd and refuses to lay all the blame for the present inactivity of industry and trade upon Congress and the Inter-state Commerce Commission.

He talks in terms of fundamental economics when he says: "The right proportion between people who are producing and those who consume has not been maintained."

In other words, his judgment is that the country's consumptive capacity has been lagging too far behind and must catch up to its productive capacity before business can improve very much. Mr. Hill deprecates the increase in the number of people employed in industrial enterprise during the last few years having been made at the expense of agriculture. Which is to suggest one of the remedies he would apply for a restoration of equilibrium in the business world.

The Oversupply of Investments

STATISTICS are at hand to substantiate another of Mr. Hill's recent remarks that "there is plenty of commercial money in the banks but no investment money."

According to figures compiled by the *Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin*, the August output of new securities was the lowest on record—only a little more than \$51,500,000. For the two previous months the respective totals were, in round numbers, \$130,000,000 and \$238,000,000. And in August, 1910, the total was nearly \$12,000,000 greater than this year.

This remarkable falling off in the monthly supply of new stocks, bonds and notes is, of course, due to the diminished demand from investors about which the bankers have been complaining lately. Of the billion and a quarter, or more, new securities offered since the first of the year, it is estimated that an unusually large proportion still remains to be distributed to the public. Until the shelves of the bankers are cleared of this surplus, it will be futile for the corporations to attempt to raise more money unless they are willing to pay well for it.

An oversupply of securities of such proportions as the present one always tends to create bargains in the investment markets. Those who seek the most profitable, yet safe, employment for their savings say the bankers will do well, during the next month or so, to be on the alert.

Scientific Management to the Fore

MORE will be heard this fall about "scientific management." And investors might conceivably employ time much less profitably than in giving some of their attention to the discussion of its principles—not necessarily to the technical things involved, but to the things which the "new science," as it is called, seeks to accomplish.

In this sense, the investor's concern is indirect, it is true, but it is scarcely less important than that of the men who are directly and actively engaged in the administration of industrial enterprise.

The essential thing at which scientific management aims is an increase in industrial output with a decreased cost of production. The corollary to that is increased profits, or, in terms of investment science, a greater "margin of safety" for the securities based upon industry. Incidentally, we are told, the employer's ability to pay higher wages, as well as to make some reductions to ultimate consumers in the cost of the goods he produces, will be increased.

Business men, for the most part, are probably as yet unconvinced of the practicability of what is known as the "Taylor System." But they have apparently been brought to a point where they are willing to approach a consideration of it with open minds. The method of the round-table conference will be introduced in this connection at Hanover, New Hampshire, October 12, 13 and 14, under the auspices of the Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance of Dartmouth College. Leading exponents of the science, including Frederick W. Taylor, the originator, H. L. Gantt, Harrington Emerson, H. P. Kendall, James M. Dodge and Frederick A. Cleveland, will be heard there and prominent representatives of the machine, textile, shoe, paper and lumber industries will participate in the discussions.

These sessions will be primarily for the benefit of the manufacturers and business men of New Hampshire and neighboring States. But they should serve to stimulate a more widespread and serious interest in these proposed methods of industrial reorganization. It may be expected that some valuable new contributions will be made to the literature on the subject, and from a more practical point of view.



A NEW INTERPRETATION OF CHRIST¹

TWELVE years ago there appeared in Germany a remarkable book, since characterized as the most noteworthy study of the development of human society since Buckle's "History of Civilization." It was entitled "Grundlagen des Neunzehnten Jahrhunderts," and was written in German by Houston Stewart Chamberlain, an Englishman by birth, but a German by education. This work, after having gone through eight editions, representing no less than 60,000 copies in German, has recently been translated into English.

The aim of the book, which has been called the Bible of the Teutonic Aryan as opposed to the Semite, is to expound the various influences which "conditioned" our nineteenth century civilization. The author claims that Jesus Christ himself was the fountain-head of Teutonic civilization. The nineteenth century, he maintains, rests on three foundations: (1) the art and literature of Greece; (2) the law and state idea of Rome; and (3) the religious revelation of Christ. In the case of the Greeks and the Romans these "foundations" were achievements of distinct races; in the case of Christ, of a preëminent personality. The nineteenth century, and, therefore, the twentieth, and all the future centuries, according to Mr. Chamberlain, depend for everything that is worth mentioning and preserving, upon the Teutonic branch of the Aryan race. In this "race," with somewhat inexact ethnological science, the author would include the German, the French, the English, and some of the Slavs. Summing up the significance of the work of the Greeks and Romans he says: "In art and philosophy man becomes conscious of himself, in contrast to nature, as an intellectual being; in marriage and law he becomes conscious of himself as a social being." These are the achievements of Greece and Rome. In Jesus Christ, however, "man becomes conscious of himself as a moral being." The revelation of Christ, says Mr. Chamberlain, was vastly greater than the work of Greece and Rome together. The birth of Jesus was incomparably "the most important event in all human history."

With the beginning of the Christian era, therefore, man had already entered "into the daylight of life." It was just at the time that the Romans, having gained the whole world, had begun to lose their own soul. The decadent Roman conception of Cæsarism had begun to replace the true Roman ideal of the State. This Cæsarism, with the historical and materialistic religion of the Jews which was later grafted on to the religion of Christ, together with the "systematizing scholastic principle inherent in Aristotle," "eventually proved the wreck of the great Roman State" and brought it to "a mere raceless chaos of decaying empire." This inherited culture inspired by the doctrines of the scholastics and sycophants "cursed Europe's intellectual development for centuries."

What has saved us from this degrading bondage? Nothing, according to Mr. Chamberlain, except the entering of the Teutons into Western Europe.

From the fourth century down to to-day, the history of the civilized human race became "in a certain sense" a struggle between Teuton and non-Teuton, between "Germanic sentiment and anti-Germanic disposition." The Reformation, primarily a political movement, freed the nations of Europe from the dominance of Rome. Ever since that day—for the French Revolution was not the beginning of a new era, but the beginning of the end of Roman domination—it has been the rise of Teutonic individuality and nationality in science, industry, politics, religion, and art that is the cardinal fact of Western history.

The most creative thought in this work is undoubtedly the author's interpretation of Christ. This is one of the most extraordinary interpretations of modern philosophy and literature, illuminatingly elaborated with the deep and extraordinary scholarship of a remarkable mind. All true religion, says Mr. Chamberlain, is summed up in that single sentence of Christ: "The kingdom of God is within you." This teaching, he points out, is distinctly individual and Aryan as opposed to all the historical and materialistic religions, as well as to the religions in which salvation is based upon a system of good works. The religious faith of more than two-thirds of all the inhabitants of the earth to-day starts from the earthly life of two men, Christ and Buddha. But these are as opposite as the poles. Buddha represents the "senile decay of a culture which has reached the limits of its possibilities." Buddha taught that there is nothing in life but suffering, and that the one object worth striving for is redemption from suffering by annihilation. The sole object of life for Buddha was to die. Christ taught that the kingdom of God is within us, therefore, man, and his life, is the most important thing. Christ did not turn from life, but to life, and to more life. Whatever Christ's racial type may have been, morally at any rate, Mr. Chamberlain insists, He was not a Jew, but an Aryan, and His teaching, though influenced by Semitic environment, is a "complete denial" of all the teachings that are dear to the Jewish heart. He was not the Messiah of the Jew, but the Superman of the Aryan.

There is much that seems like prejudice in these two splendid volumes. Mr. Chamberlain's dislike of the Hebrew people leads him, it would seem to the fair-minded reader, to unjust disparagement of the contributions to civilization made by the Jews. His style, which is extraordinarily lucid, is that of a controversialist who sets out to prove a thesis. The reader cannot help realizing the argumentative tone of the work, yet finds it impossible to withhold admiration from the vast learning, the splendid critical acumen, and the seductive manner in which facts are marshaled in support of the thesis. It should be added that the translation appears to have been very well done.

¹ The Foundations of the Nineteenth Century. By Houston Stewart Chamberlain. 2 vols. Translated from the German by John Lees. John Lane. 1158 pp. \$10.

THE NEW BOOKS

BIOGRAPHY

WE have long known Talleyrand the Bishop, Talleyrand the member of Parliament, Talleyrand the diplomat, the grand chamberlain, the courtier, the statesman, and the minister of foreign affairs. But Talleyrand the man is comparatively unknown. In a biographical sketch¹ by Bernard de Lacombe, just translated by A. d'Alberty, we are given a picture of the private citizen, who was Prince Talleyrand de Périgord, of his social and religious ideas, of his love affairs and of his sickly and forsaken old age. As far as possible the historical documents have been permitted to speak for themselves. Perhaps one of the most interesting parts of the volume is Talleyrand's experience in the United States in 1794, when he taught the principles of free trade to Alexander Hamilton. A frontispiece portrait is from the painting by Isabey.

A collection of "Great Love Stories of the Theatre,"² by Charles W. Collins, purports to be a complete historical record of theatrical romance. The beauties who figure in these stories were either favorites of monarchs or of artists and well-known public men. Portraits of the most celebrated historical characters are scattered through the volume, the frontispiece being a reproduction of a painting of Adrienne Lecouvreur.

A literary study entitled "Some Aspects of Thackeray,"³ containing chapters on Thackeray as a leader, as a critic, as an artist, and studies of Thackeray's country, his ballads, his illustrations and the prototype of his characters, is a welcome contribution to the Thackeray literature of this anniversary year by Lewis Melville. Mr. Melville, who has already brought out a successful life of Thackeray, has become known as a Thackeray expert. He writes with enthusiasm and a practised hand. The volume is fully illustrated, including many portraits of the author of "Vanity Fair."

Historians of world literature and world politics are now agreed that Adam Mickiewicz was not only the most inspired of Polish poets and one of the noblest personalities in the history of his country, but that he was one of the loftiest idealists of the nineteenth century. Continental Europeans, with the exception of the French, know very little of Mickiewicz; the English scarcely anything, while to the Americans his name is almost unknown. In her character sketch: "Adam Mickiewicz: The National Poet of Poland,"⁴ Miss Monica M. Gardner provides, with an unusually sympathetic touch, not only what is a well rounded story of Mickiewicz's career and character, but an illuminating outline of a half century of Polish history. Miss Gardner believes,—and there are many who will agree with her,—that Mickiewicz was the greatest poet of the Slavonic race. He came to maturity and began his poetic writings at the time when Poland, having ceased to exist

politically, was in the depths of her despair. It was just before the ill-starred uprising of 1831, and the sorrows of the nation had found expression in a literature "that for its noble power, its lofty ideals, and its deep pathos ranks among the finer creations of European letters." During the years of exile and persecution following 1831, the national life was dependent upon the poets, who kept alive the aspirations and ideals of the people. It was the golden age of Polish literature, when the triad, Mickiewicz, Slowacki and Krasinski, were writing their mystic epics and dramas. The greatest of these, undoubtedly, was Mickiewicz. Miss Gardner has great sympathy for her subject and a fine instinct for literary values. This enables her to show us the man, Mickiewicz, clearly, even though the work is not a full biography. She has herself translated directly from the Polish typical passages from his greatest works, particularly from the "Ancestors" and "Thaddeus." She gives an account of the mystic theory of *Mesyanism*, in accordance with which Poland, purified and spiritualized by her sufferings, was to be exalted to become the leader of all Christian, and more especially of all Slavonian nations. She quotes the verdict of a German critic, never prone to overestimate Polish merit, who has declared that "there may be greater poets than Mickiewicz in the world's history, greater in intellectual and in creative power, but there has risen, as yet, no other who could be for his people what Mickiewicz was and is to his people. He forgot everything but his unceasing toil to raise her to the loftiest moral heights." A striking portrait of the poet, setting forth his nobility of feature, forms the frontispiece to the volume.

HISTORY

A series of volumes setting forth, in modern style, the story of various periods in English history, with especial attention to the human side of national movements, is being brought out by the Crowells. "The Dawn of British History," by Alice Corkran, begins about 400 B. C. with the first voyage of the Greeks to Britain in search of tin. The book ends with the withdrawal of the Romans in 410 A. D., thus covering eight centuries of British history. "The Birth of England" and "From Conquest to Charter," two volumes by Estelle Ross, takes up the history from the Roman departure, 410 A. D., to the wresting of the Great Charter from King John in 1215. These volumes are copiously illustrated with some pictures in color and with many pen drawings. Two accounts of later periods, "In Tudor Times" and "In Stuart Times," both by Edith L. Elias, devote themselves more particularly to character studies of eminent personalities. They are illustrated with full-page half-tone portraits.

Why was Shelley expelled from Oxford? Why did Dr. Johnson throw the boots out of his window at Pembroke? What is the truth about the Brasenose Hellfire Club, and the ghost? What was the origin of town and gown rows? Is it true that Froude's book was publicly burnt at Exeter? What was Oxford like at the time of the Civil War? What sort of people were the Tractarians, the Wesleyans, the Aesthetes and the Positivists?

¹ Talleyrand the Man. By Bernard de Lacombe. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. 412 pp., ill. \$3.50.

² Great Love Stories of the Theatre. By Charles W. Collins. Duffield. 327 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ Some Aspects of Thackeray. By Lewis Melville. Little, Brown & Co. 281 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴ Adam Mickiewicz: The National Poet of Poland. By Miss Monica M. Gardner. E. P. Dutton & Co. 317 pp., port. \$3.50.

Why was Jowett so famous? Which was Gladstone's college? Why do they have boar's head for dinner on Christmas Day at Queen's? Can you tell me any stories about Charles Reade—or Sir Richard Burton—or Southey—or De Quincey—or Pater? Such, with many others, always asked by visitors to England's oldest University, are the questions answered in Francis Gribble's new volume, "The Romance of the Oxford Colleges."¹ Everybody, whether he goes to Oxford or not, has asked these questions at some time during his lifetime, and one does not need to be a pedantic scholar to be interested in the answers that Mr. Gribble so entertainingly gives in this little volume.

A vivid description of the "Famous Sea Fights from Salamis to Tsu-Shima"² has been brought out by John Richard Hale, with 13 illustrations and 17 plans. Salamis, the first great sea fight of which we have a detailed history, settled the supremacy of the West over the East; Tsu-Shima reversed the long experience of 2000 years and registered the defeat of the Occident by the Orient. The stories are divided into those referring to periods of oar and close fighting; second, to that of sail and gun; and third, to that of steam, armor and rifled artillery.

A little volume, entitled "Prison Life in the Old Capitol,"³ contains a diary kept by the author, James J. Williamson, while a prisoner of the Federal Government in what was known as the "old Capitol Prison" at Washington, D. C., in the year 1863. The "Old Capitol" building is still standing, after an eventful career of more than a century. It was originally designed for a tavern, or boarding-house, but was closed shortly before the War of 1812. In August, 1814, when the British troops entered Washington and burned the Capitol, the Government bought this tavern and it was occupied by Congress until the Capitol building itself was restored. Within its walls two Presidents were inaugurated, and the Hon. John C. Calhoun died. After the outbreak of the Civil War it was taken by the Federal Government to be used as a prison. It was in this building that most of the civilian prisoners of the war period were confined. Mr. Williamson's diary relates his experiences as a prisoner during the first three months of 1863. It is one of the few published narratives of prison life from the Confederate standpoint.

Dr. Emerson David Fite, of Yale University, has made the Presidential campaign of 1860 the subject of historical treatment.⁴ While it is doubtless true, as Dr. Fite states in an introductory chapter, that there have been more exciting and enthusiastic political campaigns in the history of the country than that of 1860, it is certainly true that there has been no campaign involving more important issues. Dr. Fite finds that in the North the masses of the people controlled the political situation, while in the South it was rather a battle of leaders. This book makes important contributions to our knowledge of the arguments employed in slavery discussion, and of the methods and tactics adopted in the campaign.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

Still another of Mr. William Eleroy Curtis' meaty accounts of his travels comes to us entitled

¹ The Romance of the Oxford Colleges. By Francis Gribble. Little, Brown & Co. 324 pp., ill. \$1.75.

² Famous Sea Fights from Salamis to Tsu-Shima. By John Richard Hale. Little, Brown & Co. 349 pp., ill. \$2.

³ Prison Life in the Old Capitol. By James J. Williamson. Published by the author. 162 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁴ The Presidential Campaign of 1860. By Emerson David Fite. Macmillan. 356 pp. \$2.

"Around the Black Sea."⁵ Asia Minor, Armenia, the Caucasus, Circassia, the Crimea, and Roumania are considered. The volume is copiously illustrated, chiefly from photographs taken by the author himself, and there is also a complete map of the Black Sea region. The final chapter considers Robert College.

The most attractive book yet published on the subject of conservation is "The Land We Live In,"⁶ by Overton W. Price, vice-president of the National Conservation Association. As Mr. Gifford Pinchot remarks, in a foreword, while the book is to be known as the boy's book of conservation, "it is about as good for grown-ups also." After reading Mr. Pinchot's enthusiastic declaration that he has never before seen so good a statement of the great conservation problem as this, most people will be satisfied that "The Land We Live In" is something more than a boy's book. The title is a peculiarly happy one and the book in both text and pictures lives up to the title from the first chapter to the last. Many of the descriptive passages yield nothing to the photographic illustrations in vividness and clarity. All the pictures have been chosen with admirable discernment. If there are any Americans still unconverted to the gospel of conservation, a perusal of this book should accomplish the desired result.

A new volume in the All Red Series is devoted to "The Dominion of Canada."⁷ This series, which has already issued volumes on Australia and New Zealand, is designed to "quicken the interest of Englishmen in the extension and maintenance of the Empire and to give an account of its constituent countries as they are to-day—their physical features, natural productions, commerce, and social and political institutions." This volume on Canada has been written by W. L. Griffith, who has been Secretary for some time to the High Commissioner for Canada in London, Lord Strathcona. It is intended to be of practical use for immigrants or visitors, and also for the study of those Canadians who stay at home. The book is copiously illustrated and there is a map of the Dominion at the end.

LITERATURE AND ART

"Success in Literature,"⁸ by W. M. Colles and Henry Cresswell, is a collection of counsel from various notable writers, such as might be useful in guiding the pens of aspirants for literary honors. The information is divided into topical chapters, entitled, "Originality," "The Worker and his Work," "Style," "Reading," "Form," "Treatment," "Success," and "The Literary Great." These chapters postulate that the profession of letters is essentially intellectual and also that success is the reward of labors conducted with knowledge and judgment. The entire text with its quotations and succeeding comment well bears out the truth of the postulate, nevertheless there will creep into the reader's mind the suspicion that the authors of this admirable volume have underestimated the influence of emotion as a force in literature. According to their sage advice, there must be no more Byronic scribbling at night after balls, no more fashioning of verses on the edge of

⁵ Around the Black Sea. By William Eleroy Curtis. George H. Doran Co. 456 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁶ The Land We Live In. By Overton W. Price. Small, Maynard & Co. 242 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁷ The Dominion of Canada. By W. L. Griffith. Little, Brown & Co. 450 pp., ill. \$3.

⁸ Success in Literature. By William Morris Colles and Henry Cresswell. New York: Duffield & Co. 360 pp. \$1.25.

wooden wash-stands, as did shy Christina Rossetti; we must be businesslike and be sure of a lucid comprehension of all matters appertaining to our art. Aside from this slight didactic tone, the book is a mine of helpful precept and advice.

For the lover of pure literature who is interested in lyric poetry, there are two recently issued volumes that will prove most attractive. In the little series of *Trobador Poets*, there is one volume translated from the Provençal with introduction and notes by Barbara Smythe. Then there is "*La Lyre D'Amour*," an anthology of French love poems from the earliest times down to the year 1866, *i.e.*, through the Victor Hugo period. These are in the original, and have been selected and annotated by Charles B. Lewis. Both are brought out by Duffield.

Six lectures on "The Classic Point of View,"¹ delivered at the Art Institute of Chicago during the past summer, by Kenyon Cox, have been brought out in book form under the above title. The lectures were addressed, not only to ambitious art students, but to the general reader. Replying to the charge that criticism of art by an artist is always an apology for his own work, Mr. Cox rejoins "we paint as we can, and none of us can afford to have the validity of his opinions judged by his success in carrying them into practice."

PSYCHOLOGY AND PHILOSOPHY

Rightly understood, says Mr. Havelock Ellis in the preface to his book "*The World of Dreams*,"² dreams may furnish us with clues to the whole of life. Most literature in the past on dreaming, Mr. Ellis believes, has been "overweighted by bad observation and reckless theory." In this volume, which is written in a scholarly style, with a literary touch that characterizes all Mr. Ellis's work, there are many vivid descriptions of dreams, and some very keen analyses. The book is not of the superstitious, coincidence sort; it approaches the subject of dreams from the standpoint of a special knowledge of the psychologist, Mr. Ellis being himself a scientist of standing, a fellow of the Medical Legal Society of New York, the general editor of the *Contemporaneous Science Series* and the author of a number of authoritative treatises, notably on the psychology of sex. It is the problems of normal dreaming in which this author is interested, not telepathic or abnormal visions during sleep. He considers the elements of dreams, the logic, emotion, symbolism and memory in dreams, and the rather curious experience which all dreamers know, that of attempting to fly, which has a special chapter under the title "*Aviation in Dreams*."

Hugh Black, who has given to the public a good many stimulating worded sermons and "uplift" appeals, has gathered together a good deal of his optimistic philosophy in the little volume entitled "*Happiness*."³ He declares that he has succeeded in resisting the temptation to write a book of "learned appearance, with scholastic words and large footnotes," and that he has written a book on happiness without once using words like *hedonism*

and *utilitarianism*. The sum and substance of his theory is that we attain happiness "not by processes of reasoning, but because we believe in God."

BOOKS OF REFERENCE

The volume on "*City Government by Commission*,"⁴ edited by Secretary Clinton Rogers Woodruff of the National Municipal League, contains a number of papers presented to the league by leading authorities on topics related to the recent rapid spread and development of what is known as the commission system of city government in this country. The book presents arguments both for and against the commission plan. It gives not only arguments, but the facts derived from official sources. The Municipal League, as a body, has not yet indorsed the commission form of government in its entirety. It is stated, however, in the preface to this volume, that to the extent that the commission government provides a short ballot, a concentration of authority in the hands of responsible officials, the elimination of ward lines and partisan designations in the selection of elective officials, adequate publicity in the conduct of public affairs, the merit system, and a city administration responsive to the local public opinion of the city, it embodies principles for which the league stands. The results in the Texas cities, in Des Moines and other Iowa cities, and elsewhere, are impartially presented and summarized for the benefit of the interested reader.

The "*Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*"⁵ is the work of H. W. and F. G. Fowler, authors of "*The King's English*." In its own province and on its own scale this compact little book of 1000 pages uses the materials and follows the methods of the great "*Oxford Dictionary*," which is now making a steady advance toward completion. This great work, under the editorship of Sir James Murray, is regarded as the greatest contribution of our time to English lexicography. The smaller book is issued in a form and a price that brings it within the reach of all who desire to provide themselves with the best authority on English usage.

The regular annual edition for 1911-12 (*Jewish Year 5672*) of the *American Jewish Year Book*⁶ pays particular attention to the passport question. The history and documents having to do with the effort made by the American Jews and their sympathizers to compel the Russian Government to recognize American passports in Russia, when presented by Hebrews, is presented in detail. This is the thirteenth issue of the *Year Book*.

The proceedings of the International Congress of Races, which was held in London on July 26-29, and an account of which appeared in our pages last month, have been published in a volume which has been entitled "*Inter-Racial Problems*."⁷ It consists of the papers communicated to this Congress, and has been edited by Gustav Spiller, who was the organizer of the Congress.

⁴ *City Government by Commission*. By Clinton Rogers Woodruff. Appletons. 381 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. By H. W. and F. G. Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1041 pp. \$1.

⁶ *American Jewish Year Book*. Edited by Herbert Friedenwald. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. 449 pp. 75 cents.

⁷ *Inter-Racial Problems*. By Gustav Spiller. Ginn & Co. 485 pp. \$2.40.

¹ *The Classic Point of View*. By Kenyon Cox. Scribner's. 232 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² *The World of Dreams*. By Havelock Ellis. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 288 pp., \$2.

³ *Happiness*. By Hugh Black. Fleming H. Revell Co. 232 pp. \$1.50.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

CONTENTS FOR NOVEMBER, 1911

The New Canadian Cabinet...	<i>Frontispiece</i>	Tripolitania: The Italian "White Man's Burden".....	561
The Progress of the World—		By E. ALEXANDER POWELL	
World News of a Month.....	515	<i>With illustrations</i>	
An Interview with Premier Borden.....	515	The New York Budget Exhibit.....	572
His Majority in Parliament.....	515	By HERBERT T. WADE	
Why Reciprocity Was Rejected.....	516	<i>With illustrations</i>	
The New Cabinet.....	516	The New Era of the Ranch Lands.....	580
Is Reciprocity Dead?.....	517	By CHARLES MOREAU HARGER	
No Distrust of Americans.....	517	<i>With illustrations</i>	
Reciprocal Trade Goes On.....	517	The Advent of the Motor Ship.....	591
The Coming of Connaught.....	518	By CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER	
What of Our Part in the Agreement?.....	518	<i>With illustrations</i>	
Mexico's New President.....	519	Panama,—The Next Step.....	595
Italy Makes War on Turkey.....	520	By FORBES LINDSAY	
The Italian Claims.....	520	Charting and Lighting the Caribbean...	598
Turkey's Military Strength.....	522	By HERBERT JANVRIN BROWNE	
A Long Campaign Probable.....	524	<i>With map</i>	
Significant Events in Sweden.....	525	Anglo-American Arbitration and the Far East.....	602
New Principle of Radical Coöperation.....	526	By ADACHI KINNOBUKE	
A New Russian Premier.....	526	Leading Articles of the Month—	
Real Revolution in China.....	527	Opinion in Turkey and Italy on the War..	605
Hatred of the Manchu.....	528	Italy's Merchant Marine Policy and Expansion	608
China's Military Development.....	529	China's Violation of the "Open Door".....	609
Japanese and Russian Comment.....	529	A French Missionary's Views on China...	611
Naval Happenings.....	531	Sir Robert Hart, The Irishman Who Ruled China.....	612
New Votes for Women.....	531	Kokovtsov—The New Russian Premier....	613
California's "Radicalism".....	532	Stolypin's Tribute to Polish Culture.....	615
New York's Primary Law.....	532	Sweden's Future Government.....	616
Tammany and the Election Law.....	532	Will Britain Give Sierra Leone to France?..	617
Connecticut's Legislature.....	532	Centenary Celebrations in Paraguay and Venezuela.....	618
City and State Campaigns.....	533	The Kiaeteur: Guiana's Great Waterfall....	620
President Taft's Trip.....	534	City Gardens <i>versus</i> Hoodlumism.....	622
The Tariff Board.....	534	Our Knowledge of Primeval Man to Date..	623
Progressives in Politics.....	535	Has the Church too Many Ministers?.....	624
A Real Indian Conference.....	536	Cuba as She Is: An English View.....	625
The Tobacco Trust's Plans.....	536	The Meaning of German Foreign Trade.....	627
An End to the "Electrical Trust".....	538	Schoolboy Suicides in Germany.....	628
Railroad Earnings in Depressed Times.....	539	The Present High Price of Furs and Its Causes	629
The Railroads' Cost of Living.....	539	Density of Population in New York City..	631
The "Silent Panic" in Stocks.....	539	<i>With portraits and other illustrations</i>	
The "Steel" Statement.....	539	Notes on Business and Investments.....	632
Rodgers' Plucky Air Trip.....	540	The Spanish-American War in History.	636
Aerial Post, and Aviation Deaths.....	540	The New Books.....	638
Bursting Dams.....	541		
The Obituary Record.....	542		
<i>With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations</i>			
Record of Current Events.....	543		
American and Foreign Cartoons.....	547		
John Marshall Harlan (portrait).....	553		
Canada's Premier to the American People	554		
R. L. Borden, New Premier of Canada..	555		
By AGNES C. LAUT			
<i>With portraits and other illustrations</i>			

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THE NEW CONSERVATIVE CABINET IN CANADA. PREMIER BORDEN'S OFFICIAL FAMILY—WHICH TOOK OATH OF OFFICE ON OCTOBER 10

From left to right: Col. Sam Hughes, Ontario; Minister of Militia; Robert Rogers, Saskatchewan; Minister of the Interior; Dr. J. D. Reid, Ontario; Minister of Customs; C. I. Doherty, Quebec; Minister of Finance; Dr. W. J. Ridd, Manitoba; Secretary of State; George F. Porter, Ontario; Minister of Trade and Commerce; Bruce Napier, Quebec; Minister of Indian Reserves; Robert Laird Borden, Nova Scotia; President and Chairman of the Privy Council; L. P. Pellatt, Quebec; Postmaster General; J. W. Crookall, Ontario; Minister of Labour; W. F. White, Ontario; Minister of Finance; George F. Porter, Quebec; Minister of Agriculture; A. E. Bland, Ontario; Minister of Public Works; Martin Burrell, British Columbia; Minister of Agriculture. From a photograph taken at Robert Hall, Ottawa, on October 14 after welcoming the Duke of Connaught.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*World
News of a
Month*

During the month of October, the center of the world's interest was in North Africa, in Tripoli, the object of Italy's dramatic declaration of war upon Turkey. This war of 1911, with its possibilities for a general European embroilment, almost obscured the highly important fact that, during the same month, France and Germany had actually come to an agreement over their various conflicting claims in Morocco. Hardly had the novelty of the first war news from Tripoli worn off than the world heard of the uprising in China against the Manchu dynasty and of the probability of tremendous changes in the political, economic, and social conditions among the Chinese people. Both of these upheavals in their international relations are discussed later on in these pages. For the American people the past month was of particular interest because of the definite formation of a new Ministry in Canada, the first Conservative government in fifteen years, and the election of a new President in the neighboring republic of Mexico under unusual circumstances. Both of these nations, which share with us the North American continent, have begun, during the past four weeks, a new era in the political and economic life of their people.

*An Interview
with Premier
Borden*

Last month Canada experienced a conjunction in the administration of her public affairs, quite unique in her history, and calculated to exert an important influence on the trend of her future development. A new cabinet assumed power as a result of the spectacular political contest in September which rejected reciprocity with the United States, and a royal prince became governor-general of an overseas dominion for the first time in British imperial annals. The REVIEW OF REVIEWS is very glad to be able to present to its

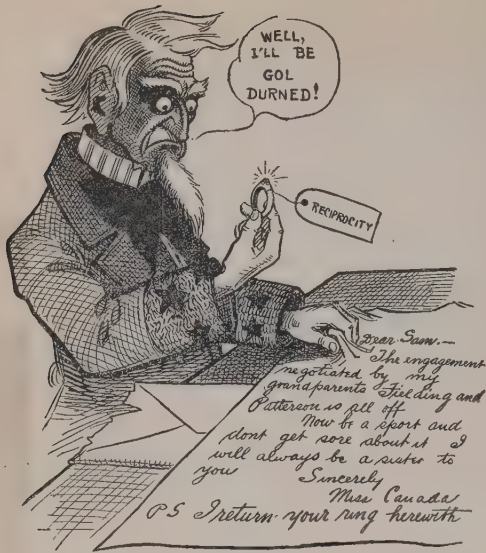
readers, this month, a message from Premier Borden to the people of the United States. The new leader of the Canadian Government has himself always been a friend and admirer of American institutions and the American people. He has never, by word or deed, joined with those jingoes in his own country who have endeavored to make it appear that the interests of the two peoples run counter to each other. His first official utterance, as Premier, on the relations of the Dominion of Canada and the United States, is presented to our readers on another page this month. Mr. Borden, only a few days after his induction into office, granted an interview to Miss Agnes C. Laut, as special representative of the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Miss Laut has long been known as an authority on Canadian affairs, and her articles on the Dominion and its people, as well as on conditions in our own Northwest, have appeared in these pages from time to time.

*His Majority
in Parliament*

The final results of the balloting in Canada on September 21 were not essentially different from the figures given in these pages last month. They were as follows:

	Conservative and Nationalist	Liberal
Ontario.....	72	13
Quebec.....	25	38
Nova Scotia.....	8	10
New Brunswick.....	5	8
Prince Edward Island...	2	2
Manitoba.....	6	4
Saskatchewan.....	1	9
Alberta.....	1	6
British Columbia.....	7	0
Total.....	127	90

This gives Mr. Borden a majority of 37. Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his cabinet presented their resignations to Earl Grey on October 6, and immediately afterward the Governor-



MISS CANADA BREAKS OFF HER ENGAGEMENT
WITH UNCLE SAM

(This cartoon sets forth the point of view of the majority of the Canadian journals on the defeat of reciprocity in the general elections held September 21. It originally appeared in the *Montreal Star*, but was copied widely and was even used as a poster by the triumphant Conservatives)

General summoned Mr. Borden to form a new ministry. Four days later, the first Conservative cabinet in Canada since that of Sir John Macdonald in 1896 was sworn in. The veteran Liberal leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, beyond dispute the most eminent of living Canadians, has calmly accepted the result, great surprise as it was to him and his followers, and sturdily declares that he will not retire from public life, but will lead the Opposition in Parliament, and seek to reorganize his party and reshape its future.

Why Reciprocity Was Rejected

The press of the Dominion, in commenting upon the results of the election, unanimously agrees that it means a realization of nationality on the part of the Canadian people. The Conservative journals regard the vote against reciprocity as a vindication of Canada's right to stand alone and maintain what they call her fiscal autonomy. Many of the Liberal organs, on the other hand, while cheerfully accepting the result, point out that it is an object lesson as to the value of the referendum. The linking of the fate of a government and a political party with a great economic issue which should have been dealt with upon its merits and altogether apart from partisan considerations, was, in their opinion, a mistake. If the question had been submitted to the people by way of a refer-

endum, says the *Toronto Tribune*, the political leaders and workers "would have had no object in twisting it into an engine for party capital . . . to make it appear that the autonomy of the country was threatened, and that there was grave danger that annexation to the United States would follow the ratification of the pact." As a matter of fact, it would be difficult to find any Canadian journal or leader expressing any real hostility to the United States. It was simply a question of Canada's unwillingness to throw to the winds the results of a generation of building up trade on east and west lines. The three great transcontinental railroad systems of the Dominion would naturally be expected to oppose any fiscal policy which would tend to make the volume of trade follow north and south instead of east and west lines.

*The
New
Cabinet*

The Duke of Connaught, who succeeds Earl Grey as Governor-General, with the Duchess and their suites, landed at Quebec on October 13, and immediately proceeded to Ottawa, where they were present at the first Cabinet Council of the new Premier. The announcement of the names of the ministers was made on October 9. Like Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Mr. Borden, the Premier, will also act as President of the Council. He will represent Nova Scotia. In the Ministry Quebec has four representatives with portfolios, and one without; Ontario has seven, and one without a portfolio; the Northwest is given four places, one from Manitoba, one from Alberta, one from Saskatchewan, and one from British Columbia. New Brunswick is represented by one and it is expected that a member from Prince Edward Island will also be included.



DEFEAT WITH HONOR

John Bull (to Sir Wilfrid Laurier): "You have done good service for the empire, Sir Wilfrid. You have lost the election, but not our appreciation."

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London)

*Is
Reciprocity
Dead?*

Canada's decision as to reciprocity is regarded by Canadians and British generally as undoubtedly the most significant advance she has yet made toward nationhood. The result of the general election proclaimed Canada's purpose to work out her own destiny unmindful of outside influences. It also proclaimed that however American-Canadian trade tendencies may shape themselves henceforth, reciprocity is probably permanently shelved. It is altogether unlikely that any Canadian politician in our day will voluntarily assume the handicap which its advocacy would involve. Laurier's defeat was brought about in part by subsidiary issues, as well as by the various phases in which the anti-reciprocity feeling manifested itself. There was resentment at Uncle Sam's previous rejections of Canada's reciprocity advances, endorsement of the doctrine of "let well enough alone" commercially, the spirit of British imperialism and Canadian nationalism, the commendable confidence that the country was strong enough to stand firm on its own feet and blaze its own trail, and the fear that annexation really underlay the American overtures. No one can pretend to estimate the part played by each of these in the completeness of Laurier's overthrow. But the Liberal party caucus when the session opens this month may be trusted to relegate reciprocity to the museum of outworn political devices, as far as Canada is concerned.

*No
Distrust of
Americans*

Nevertheless, no impairment of trade relations or friendly intercourse between the two English-speaking peoples on this continent need be feared. Premier-elect Borden, in his message to the world on election night, emphasized the fact that the overturn was not dictated by jealousy or unfriendliness, but was inspired by the confident conviction of the Canadian people that the real interests of the two countries would be best promoted by their preserving their fiscal identities. In even more clear and emphatic terms he reaffirms this message in the words addressed to the American people through this REVIEW, which we print on another page. The same idea has been expressed by the Canadian newspapers, and the virtually unanimous acquiescence by the American statesmen and publicists in the decision of the Canadian electorate did much to dispel the apprehension of any unpleasantness or misunderstanding following upon a result which some might consider a rebuff to the United States.



CANADA'S NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL, THE
DUKE OF CONNAUGHT

*Reciprocal
Trade
Goes On*

All that is now past, and the two countries continue trading as before. They are the natural markets for each other in very many products, and even the British "Preference" arrangement could not check this tendency, for Canada's commerce with the United States to-day is one and a half as great as that with the entire British Empire. It would be absurd to suppose that there will be any change in this respect because of the Canadian election just held. While some Liberal journals insinuate that the Canadian trusts and corporations will dominate the Borden Ministry and enforce higher tariff views thereon, this idea may also be rejected. The popular demand for tariff reduction is as strong in Canada as it is in the United States, and disregard of it would cripple the Canadian Conservatives as it has done the American Republicans, while the possibility of retaliation by the United States in such an event could not be overlooked. The outstanding probability, therefore, with regard to trade intercourse, is that despite the seeming setback implied in the rejection of reciprocity, the commercial relations of the two countries will continue to flourish as heretofore. With Canada's waste places filling up so rapidly, her territories being "gridironed" with railways and the demands of her ever-increasing multitudes of

consumers outstripping her manufacturing capabilities, buying and selling with the United States will become more and more imperative for her people.

*The Coming
of
Connaught*

Obviously, moreover, two peoples of the same blood and speech, separated only by a geographical boundary which is merely a political expression, while provided with railway and steamboat agencies for social and commercial intercommunication unequaled elsewhere and utilized to the full, cannot continue such intercourse and remain on unfriendly terms. In this increasing friendliness, also, the appointment of the Duke of Connaught, as Governor-General of Canada, is likely to prove an important factor. Various surmises are current as to why so remarkable a departure was made as to select a royal prince to succeed Earl Grey. The limitations which circumscribe the authority of the King's representative in an autonomous colony are such, and so well recognized, that the Duke, while "reigning" as did his predecessors, can do no more towards actually "governing" than they did. He is a figurehead; a more splendid one, perhaps, because the brother of the late King Edward VII and the uncle of the present King, but still a figurehead! Why, then, it may be asked, was he chosen for this mission? One theory is that it was as a compliment to Canada, a recognition of her growing importance in the councils of empire. Another is that it was to counteract the separatist feeling supposed to be gaining ground in Canada, a supposition which the late election proves to have been quite without foundation.

*Regarded
as
Pro-American*

It should not be forgotten that the late King Edward was really responsible for this appointment, which was arranged before his death. It is not, therefore, unreasonable to conclude that it was another of that sagacious monarch's far-seeing moves on the diplomatic chess-board and designed to assist in promoting an Anglo-American accord. The Duke will, indeed, be able to do much more in this direction than could possibly be done by another personage who might occupy the viceregal chair at Ottawa, because of the prestige attaching to his relationship with the sovereign. If a certain American President was "the advance-agent of prosperity," Canada's new Governor will probably enact the rôle of "an ambassador of peace." Earl Grey contributed not a little, during his six years'

sojourn at Ottawa, by inviting American public men to visit and speak there, and by his own visits to the United States, to promote a better understanding between the two countries, and a still wider field of usefulness opens for the Duke of Connaught in the same direction. While it is not suggested that the political relations of the Dominion and the Republic are to be influenced in the social activities of a viceregal court at Ottawa, few will dispute that such an agency for friendliness will assist in this object. Next year—the centenary of the War of 1812—will round out a century of peace between Britain and America, and the proposed celebration of this auspicious condition will afford the Duke of Connaught an opportunity to testify to the sincerity of the desire of all portions of the British Empire to perpetuate a peace pact with the United States.

*What
of Our Part
in the
Agreement?*

The results of the general election in the Dominion took every one by surprise not only in Canada itself, but, it may be said, nearly every one in the United States who had been following the campaign. There can be no disguising the fact that the reciprocity offer made by President Taft has been spurned, because of a belief amounting, it may be said, to a dread, on the part of Canada—which was expressed in many quarters with a brutal frankness,—that closer commercial relations might lead to a political union between the Dominion and the Republic. The verdict of the Canadian electorate in a way leaves the reciprocity agreement, as adopted by the United States Senate on July 22, practically where it was before the balloting began in Canada. No definite plan of action with regard to the measure has been made public, or is likely to be until Congress meets on the fourth day of next month. By the terms of the agreement, the proposed reduction in duties would not become effective until after Canada's ratification. The wood pulp and paper schedule, however, by special provision, went into operation immediately, unless Congress shall see fit to repeal the entire reciprocity act. The opinion has been expressed at the State Department that no effort will be made to repeal the act, although, of course, the duties will not become effective. The act itself, in the opinion of the officials referred to, will probably be permitted to remain on the statute books as a reminder to Canada of the recognition by the United States of the principle of reciprocity and our willingness to take up the matter again.

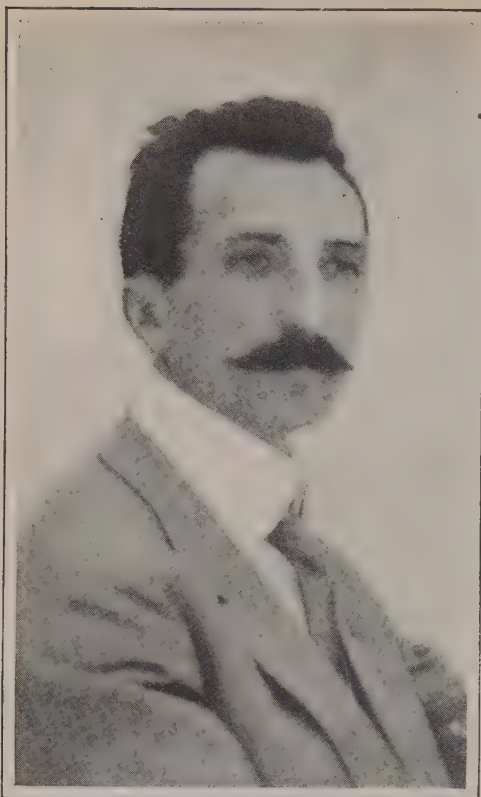


MEXICO'S NEW PRESIDENT, FRANCISCO MADERO, ELECTED LAST MONTH

*Mexico's
New
President*

The elections in Mexico, which took place on the first day of last month, resulted in an almost unanimous vote in favor of Francisco I. Madero, Jr., for President. Dr. José Pino Suarez, Señor Madero's own candidate for Vice-President, was also chosen. The campaign was conducted without serious disorder. There were imperfections in the organization of the election machinery, it is true, but, considering that this was the first general election of a really popular kind ever held in the Mexican Republic, that the processes and methods were quite new to the voters, and that there was considerable feeling in favor of General Reyes and Provisional President de la Barra, the virtually unanimous choice of Madero may be considered an absolute expression of the will of the Mexican people.

Early in the campaign, General Reyes announced his withdrawal as a candidate, as did also Señor de la Barra, although the so-called Catholic party insisted upon casting some of their votes for the provisional president. The new President was almost unknown a year ago. As recently as last February, he was regarded as a fanatic who disturbed the peace of his country, and frequently crossed the border into United States territory, where American officials were searching for him for violation of the neutrality laws. After a hard campaign, Madero defeated the Diaz adherents, forced the venerable dictator-president to flee from the country, and started Mexico on her career as a real democratic republic. Madero went into politics because his family, a large and distinguished one, had no voice in the



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SENOR JOSÉ PINO SUAREZ, LAST MONTH ELECTED
VICE-PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

government. He might have been President immediately after the flight of Diaz, but instead of this, he renounced the title of provisional president, and proposed the arrangement by which De la Barra became provisional president, pending the general popular election. He has borne himself with dignity and modesty, and there can be no reasonable doubt of his proving a safe, honest, and progressive chief magistrate of the Mexican Republic.

Italy Makes War on Turkey Suddenly last month, and to the utter amazement of the world, except the few students of European, particularly Mediterranean European politics, the focus of interest in African affairs passed from Morocco to Tripoli. For nearly three months Europe had been shuddering at the possibility of war between France and Germany over the question of Morocco. Then, just as it was announced officially by the Berlin Foreign Office that the two governments had agreed absolutely about Morocco, and were simply talking about "compensations" in the Congo,

Italy declared war against Turkey. With business-like speed and thoroughness, she sent some of her warships across the 400 miles of water that separates her from North Africa, while with the rest of her naval power she scoured the Mediterranean in search of the few ships that Turkey possesses, and to cover the transportation of her troops. Within forty-eight hours the entire coast of Tripoli was blockaded. In swift succession came startling news. The port of Tripoli had been bombarded, and captured. The Duke of the Abruzzi, commanding an Italian squadron, had blockaded Previsa on the Adriatic Sea just north of Greece. The Balkan countries and the rest of Europe had declared their neutrality in the contest. An army of forty thousand Italian troops had been landed on Tripolitanian territory. A number of smaller Turkish war vessels had been sunk. The cabinet of Hakki Pasha at Constantinople had fallen, and the new ministry, under the grand viziership of Said Pasha, had ordered the expulsion of all Italians from Turkish territory and the complete boycott of Italian goods. Austria had warned Italy against landing troops on the mainland of the European continent, or bombarding towns in European Turkey, and Great Britain had forbidden Turkey to send any of her military forces across Egypt into the disputed territory of Tripoli. All this happened within the week following September 29, when the declaration of war was issued from Rome.

*The
Italian
Claims*

The direct ground upon which Italy claimed the right to seize Tripoli was set forth in the ultimatum delivered by the Italian Government to the government at Constantinople, on September 28. This statement, signed by the Marquis di San Giuliano, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, gave a long list of claims made by Italy against Turkey for economic and commercial discriminations in Tripoli, and injuries to Italian commerce and the persons of Italian citizens in other parts of the world. All enterprise on the part of Italians, said the ultimatum, in the regions mentioned [Tripoli and Cyrene] "has been systematically opposed and unjustifiably crushed." The Italian Government, "having the intention henceforth to protect its interests and its dignity, has decided to proceed to the military occupation of Tripoli and Cyrene." Twenty-four hours was given within which to receive a decisive, favorable response from the Ottoman Government, fail-



THE MEDITERRANEAN, THE THEATER OF ITALY'S WAR AGAINST TURKEY

ing which, the Italian Minister at Constantinople was instructed to inform the Porte that Italian warships would sail for Tripoli. In the official reply of the Porte, denial was made of unjust discrimination against Italian enterprise, and "a firm desire to smooth over the difficulties" was expressed. This reply, not being considered satisfactory, a formal declaration of war was made from Rome on the afternoon of September 29.

*Italy's
Task
Not Easy*

It was evident, by the middle of last month, that while the Italian naval and military forces had secured undoubted control of the city of Tripoli, and were dominating the other towns along the Tripolitan coast line, chiefly Derna and Tobruk, and held undisputed command of the sea against any naval force the Turks could bring to oppose them, nevertheless the task of reducing Tripoli to the status of a



THE GUARDIAN OF GERMANY'S FOREIGN INTERESTS—
"VON KIDERLEN—WACHTER?"

(This legend, which may freely be rendered as "von Kiderlen on the Lookout," is the way the German cartoon weekly *Kladderadatsch* refers to the pugnacious, watchful activity of the German Foreign Minister, Baron von Kiderlen-Wachter, who has contested France's supremacy in Morocco, and is now getting what "compensation" he can for Germany in the Congo)

conquered Italian province had scarcely begun. At the present time, there are somewhat more than 40,000 Italian troops in Tripoli,—an army of occupation larger than might seem necessary, until one remembers the disastrous experience of Italy in her Abyssinian wars of 1887 and 1896. The capacity of the North African Arab for fighting is respectfully admitted by the British, French, and Spanish colonial offices, and the Italians are apparently not going to be caught napping if they can help it. After the first shock of surprise, on the part of the Turks, it became evident that the Mohammedan world was rising to oppose the Italian invasion. On another page this month we quote some significant words from representative journals of Constantinople, which indicate that it will be no easy task that Italy has set herself. With France's supremacy acknowledged in Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis, and

Egypt absolutely under British control, the acquisition of Tripoli by Italy completes the Europeanizing of North Africa. Mr. E. Alexander Powell's article on Tripoli, which appears on another page this month, written as it is by an acknowledged authority on North African affairs, with its splendid illustrations, will give the reader an excellent idea of this last of Turkey's African possessions, almost as large as France and Germany combined, which Italy now claims as her own.

*Turkey's
Military
Strength*

It would appear that the chief motive impelling the sudden action of Italy in Tripoli was a sense of the growing strength of Turkey. During the thirty years of progressive decay that followed the Berlin Congress of 1878, when a tacit understanding among the powers represented had assigned Tripoli to Italy as her share of what was then regarded as the derelict Ottoman Empire, Italy could afford to look on, perhaps with occasional periods of impatience, for the moment of dissolution when she should enter into final possession. A change, however, came with the revolution at Constantinople three years



FREIHERR KOLMAR VON DER GOLTZ, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE GERMAN ARMY

(General von der Goltz, known as von der Goltz Pasha by the Turks, is responsible for the present high efficiency of the Ottoman army. He spent five or six years organizing and training the Turkish troops)



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REAR-ADMIRAL AUBREY, WHO COMMANDED THE
FLEET ATTACKING TRIPOLI

VICE-ADMIRAL PRINCE LUIGI AMADEO, DUKE OF
THE ABRUZZI

LEADERS OF ITALY'S NAVY IN THE WAR WITH TURKEY



SAID PASHA, GRAND VIZIER

SHEVKETH PASHA, MINISTER OF WAR

THE CHIEF FIGURES IN THE PRESENT TURKISH GOVERNMENT



THE PIOUS WORLD POWERS CATCH ITALY ROBBING TURKEY'S STRONG BOX

(This cartoon by the artist of the *Amsterdammer*, Amsterdam, satirizes the virtuous indignation of the powers at Italy's aggression upon Turkey—while all the world knows of their own lapses)

ago. While the time was too short for any great advance in the political consolidation of Turkey, the reorganization of the army made remarkable progress. Its efficiency was proved in the three successive tests of the rising of Kurdish tribes in the Syrian hinterland, the rebellion in Yemen in southwestern Arabia, and the recent troubles in northern Albania on the Montenegrin frontier. The results not only proved the efficiency of the army as an instrument of war, but afforded conclusive evidence of a strong spirit of patriotism among the populations from which it was drawn.

The Psychological Moment These demonstrations of military power were accompanied by evidences of an intention on the part of Turkey to revive the Ottoman navy, a proceeding which could not fail to impress the Italian Government with the conviction that if it meant to avail itself of the general understanding among the powers, and the specific declarations of disinterestedness made by England and France regarding Tripoli in 1901, it had not much time to lose. A further impulse to this conviction was the fact that the moment was singularly propitious.

The general condition of Europe is such that all the governments dread the possibilities of a general war. Furthermore, a large part of the Tripoli division of the Ottoman army is still far away in Yemen. The Turkish fleet was scattered, and, in any case, too weak and unprepared to resist the Italian squadrons. A *coup de main*, therefore, was the natural course to adopt. But whether its execution was the surprise to some of the powers it is represented as having been, is open to doubt. The Italians themselves appear to have fully made up their minds and not to have hesitated to express their intentions quite openly in print. In this connection the opinions we quote on another page from several influential Italian periodicals will prove interesting. At all events, the occupation of the coast line of Tripoli from Tunis to the Egyptian border is now an accomplished fact.

But a Long Campaign Probable The serious question of the hinterland remains to be solved. If the statements of a German officer in the service of the Turkish Government, Lieutenant-Colonel von Rüdich, who has made an exhaustive examination of mili-

tary possibilities in that region, are to be credited, the Italians will need an army of not less than 80,000 men to render their occupation effective. This German officer has been two years engaged in the training of the Tripolitanian local militia, of which some 30,000 alone are cavalry, which could be doubled, in case of emergency, by a general levy of the Arab population, in addition to the trained infantry of the regular divisions. With the remembrance of their Abyssinian disasters still fresh before them, the Italian Government will no doubt proceed with great caution in regard to the hinterland. In the beginning of the nineties of the last century, Crispi contemplated taking advantage of the discredit which the massacres in Armenia had brought upon the government of the Sultan Abdul Hamid, but his plans were upset by his political downfall, and no Italian government since his time has ventured to move in the matter until now. The Crispi program comprised a much wider sphere of action than the present one, but the internal conditions of Italy called a halt to extended aggressions in Abyssinia and any stirring up of the question of Tripoli.

*Significant
Events in
Sweden*

While the eyes of Europe have been fixed on Italy and her adventure to the southward, highly significant political and economic developments have been taking place almost unnoticed in the far north of the continent, in



ITALY'S MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS
(The Marquis di San Giuliano, who sent the ultimatum to Turkey, the first act in the war drama)

Scandinavia. The elections to the lower half of the Riksdag, held in Sweden on September 27, were of unusual importance. Perhaps it would not be too much to say that they inaugurated for the entire world a new era



PURE AND SIMPLE DESERT—THE TYPE OF WASTE LAND IN TRIPOLI
(Of the kind, it may be presumed, Italy would make to blossom like the rose)

based on complete recognition of the people's will as the final source of power. The old Riksdag had in its lower house (or Second Chamber) a membership of 223, made up of 98 Liberals, 90 Conservatives, and 35 Socialists. Though the Conservatives did not even form the most numerous group, and though the other two groups were able and willing to coöperate in many matters, the government was in the hands of a Conservative ministry headed by Arvid Lindman. The new general elections were called under a recently adopted law, providing suffrage for all men over twenty-four. To offset this extension of the franchise, the Conservatives, aided by the Crown and the timidity of certain Liberal elements, had forced upon the country a very intricate system of proportional representation, intended to protect the rights of minorities. Basing their calculations on the results of previous elections, the Conservatives hoped that the new system would go far toward giving them a working majority in the new Riksdag. But the scheme designed for their own benefit helped the Socialists instead. The new lower house, which has 230 members, is composed of 101 Liberals, 65 Conservatives and 64 Socialists. As some of the Liberal candidates were elected by Socialist votes and may prove socialistic in their final affiliation, the party of aristocratic landholders and big industrialists has practically become the smallest in the Riksdag.

*New Principle
of Radical
Coöperation*

Highly significant also was the change of policy by which the two radical groups made this outcome possible. Instead of fighting each other for the benefit of the Conservatives, the Liberals and Socialists decided that neither party had any chance for its program until an end had been put to the dominance of elements openly bent on thwarting and opposing the popular will. The situation was almost identical with that in Germany at present, and the new policy of radical coöperation at the polls against the common reactionary enemy had the same striking effect. Partly because of this alliance and partly because of the operation of the new law, the Socialists obtained representation in many agricultural districts where otherwise they would have had small, if any, chance. Premier Lindman and his cabinet resigned on September 30. The next day the new ministry was promptly formed by the Liberal leader, Karl Staaff, concerning whom nothing better can be said than that he was the

head of the government when Norway broke away from the union in 1905, and that in such capacity he did much to prevent his country from declaring war against the seceding sister nation.

*Great Changes
Impending*

Although the Socialists refused to join the new ministry, they will probably support Premier Staaff in the reforms to which the ministry is pledged. Foremost among these must be counted various measures designed to make the entire administrative system more truly democratic. The program of the Liberal party has much in common with that of the corresponding political group in England, and in many features it is not only progressive but largely socialistic. It is interesting to note that, at one of its first meetings, the ministry was asked to consider the advisability of extending government support to the new steamship line which intends to run steamers between Stockholm and San Francisco "for the purpose of carrying California fruit, instead of Italian, to supply the Swedish and Norwegian markets." Whether the change of government will tend to abate the labor disturbances so characteristic of Sweden during the last decade remains an open question. The radicalization of the Swedish masses has been progressing with startling speed, and the process gains added importance from the fact that popular education is older in Sweden than in any other part of the world outside of the United States. Many persons familiar with conditions in Sweden believe that its monarchical form of government is doomed, and that the coming form will be not only republican but socialistic. Even moderate men have expressed the opinion that only some such change, giving the mass of the people a chance at the soil, can save the Swedish nation from the anemia caused by the constant emigration of its most vital elements to America.

*A New
Russian
Premier*

Czar Nicholas has appointed Vladimir Nikolaievitch Kokovtsov, Russian Minister of Finance, to be Premier in succession to the late Dr. Stolypin, who was assassinated on September 14. Last month, in these pages, we referred to the chief events in Stolypin's career, and pointed out that his removal presaged a new order of things in Russia. The choice of Kokovtsov to be Premier is a further indication of this. We give elsewhere in this issue the main facts of the new Premier's life, and

quote some of the more mature opinions of European authorities as to the problems that face him and how he may be expected to meet them. It may be assumed that Kokovtsov is more liberal and tolerant than Stolypin, and more susceptible to modern progressive influences. The new Premier will be given a respectful hearing, and all the assistance the reform leaders of the country can render. One of the leaders of the Octobrists has already said openly in the Duma: "Reforms are sadly needed, reforms have been promised, and—we wait." Americans will be interested in knowing that the new Russian Ambassador to this country, to succeed Baron Rosen, is George Bakhmetiev. He is an old friend of the United States, where he has spent a number of years in a minor diplomatic capacity, and where, incidentally, he found a clever and brilliant wife. The new Ambassador is of the most modern type. One of the first subjects upon which he will be expected to take some definite stand is the much-discussed question of the validity, in Russia, of United States passports issued to Hebrews for use in traveling in Russia. Heretofore these have not been honored.

*Real
Revolution
in China*

The revolution, which has been hanging over China for more than a year, and of which the uprising in the province of Sze-chuan, already noted in these pages, is only a small part, began in earnest last month. A concerted attack of large rebel forces on a number of the larger cities in the provinces of Sze-chuan, Hupeh, and Hunan resulted in the capture of Hangkow. By the middle of the month, the Assembly had seceded from the imperial Government, and the anti-Manchu revolution was in full swing. The rebels, apparently well organized and financially strong, confiscated the local treasuries and the banks, issued their own paper money, and openly proclaimed their intention of overthrowing the dynasty and establishing a republic. All reports indicate excellent organization among the revolutionists, who command the loyalty of a large number of troops. By October 20 they had captured and were administering the government of several of the larger cities of the empire, including the important commercial centers of Hangkow, Kai-fong, and Wu-chang. Risings were reported in Changsha, the capital of Hunan, and in Nanking, capital of Kwangsu. At least one battle of large proportions was fought with doubtful results, the wavering loyalty of the imperial troops more than off-

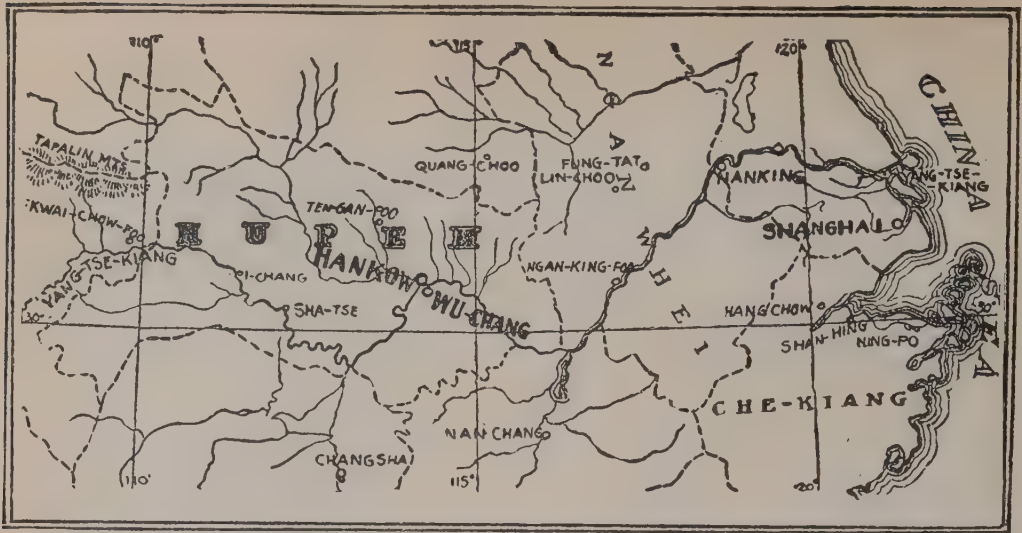


HIS EXCELLENCY GEORGE BAKHMETIEV, THE NEW RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES, AND HIS AMERICAN WIFE

setting their numerical superiority over the insurgents. The Manchu Government at Peking, seeing its own life in peril, at once recalled Yuan Shih Kai to power. On October 14 the Premier, Prince Ching, appointed Yuan to a sort of dictator-premiership. Yuan, whose title is that of Vice-Regent of the provinces of Hupeh, Hunan, and Kwang-Tung, is one of the strong, progressive men of China, who, while in sympathy with many of the demands of the revolutionists, is also a partisan of a strong central government. He would not accept the position until the Government had agreed to bring about certain reforms, in administration, the system of taxation and the extension of railroads. It was because of his progressive views that he was dismissed from the Government service three years ago.

*Some Causes
and
Reasons*

The primary cause of the present revolt in China is hatred of the Manchu dynasty, intensified by the pinch of hunger on the part of the great masses of the Chinese population. Hatred and an empty stomach have been the causes



THE SCENE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY OUTBREAK IN CHINA, MAINLY IN THE PROVINCES OF SZE-CHUAN, HUPEH AND HUNAN

of most revolutions in the world's history. The present movement is not the work of any one man or party, although the names of several eminent Chinamen are connected with it. It is a revolution of all the Chinese against what history will certainly indict as a very bad government. A national spirit of unity has been developing among the Chinese during recent years, and the demand for parliamentary government, by which they hope to obtain much needed reforms, has been insistent and loud. Last spring, when the Provincial Assembly sent delegates to Peking to demand a constitution and a Parliament, the government disbanded the meeting by military force. The Assembly submitted to dissolution, and the advocates of real parliamentary government organized themselves into a Constitutional League. Then came the floods and famine, and the spark was set to the magazine. More than a year ago, in these pages, a Japanese writer, thoroughly familiar with conditions throughout the Far East in an article under the title "The Coming Crisis in China," described the ways in which the inefficiency, corruption, and oppression of the Manchu Government have been responsible for practically all the political and economic woes of the modern Chinaman. We hope, next month, to present to our readers a comprehensive article which shall give the genesis, history, and present status of the entire revolutionary movement. This time it looks as though the age-long struggle of the Chinaman would achieve its aim.

*Hatred
of
the Manchu.*

The Manchu dynasty has ruled in China since 1644. In that year the Tartar conqueror from Manchuria took the capital city of the Ming Chinese emperors and burned it. The last of the Mings, Hwai-Tsung, committed suicide: Shunchi, the first of the Tsing (pure) dynasty, as the Manchus refer to themselves, himself began the long career of governmental abuse, graft, extortion, and personal corruption that have characterized the ruling class in China from that day to this. So much a matter of course has official corruption become in the official life of China that a certain proportion of all revenues has always been regarded as legitimate "squeeze." The financial resources of a patient, productive people like the Chinese, themselves essentially honest and industrious to an unusual degree, have always been amply sufficient to pay all legitimate government expenses and to provide for many urgently necessary public works. Flood and famine could probably have been averted long ago in China if a little of the money wrongfully extorted from the people had been applied to progressive public works. For years a plan has been maturing to overthrow the Manchu dynasty, maturing silently, although the central Government knew of its existence. During the past four years, the propaganda abroad, which consisted largely in raising money and enlisting the sympathy of foreign peoples, has been under the generalship of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who has been making secret journeys throughout Europe and the United



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THE RAILROAD STATION AT HANKOW ON THE PEKING-HANKOW LINE

(Showing Americans leaving the town just as the present revolution broke out)

States in an endeavor to finance the rebellion. Nationalism has been awakened among the race of Han, the real Chinese, and they have come to realize their power. The young men have studied abroad and have become dissatisfied with conditions at home. Since the United States remitted its share of the Boxer indemnity, hundreds of young students from the Celestial Empire have been studying at American colleges, their way being paid out of the fund, which China determined to expend in this way. These students are the real factors in the present crisis.

China's Military Development

While there is a tendency in some quarters to deprecate the Chinese military awakening, those countries most directly concerned, Russia and Japan, are exhibiting unmistakable interest in the way in which the vast empire is preparing to assert itself in Manchuria and adjoining territory. Although the Chinese military program is still some way from completion, considerable progress has been made, especially in the direction of unifying the instruction and training of the officers and soldiers, and the census which has been taken recently

enables the conscription to be mechanically effective. The forces stationed in the three Eastern Provinces and the Amur army number to date more than 110,000 men all told. These are under the Viceroys of the three Eastern Provinces and are distributed in the principal towns along the South Manchurian Railway. So matters stood when the present revolution broke out and the Peking Government was forced to transfer most of its seasoned northern troops to the valley of the Yellow River.

Japanese and Russian Comment

While the Japanese press abstains from comment on this steady accumulation of Chinese strength in the disputed region of Manchuria, the Russian press views it with pessimistic eyes, more particularly since the hurried return of the Minister of War, General Soukhomlinoff, from his recent tour of inspection in the Far East. The conservative *St. Petersburg Novoye Vremya* openly admits that a panic has broken out among Russians, and that the sick in the frontier guards stations have been hurried to Harbin, while the Russian officials have sent their families back to Russia. This leads Professor Schiemann, writing in the



YUAN SHIH-KAI, CHINA'S STRONG MAN
(Who is trying to put down the revolution)

Berlin *Kreuz-Zeitung*, to remark that the peaceful outcome of the late diplomatic conflict between China and Russia has merely deferred the crisis, and for only a short time. He goes on to detail how what amounts to the formation of a great landsturm force in Manchuria is being carried out. Every farm of a given area has to furnish one man from 20 to 25 years of age, and each village on an average from 15 to 20 men who, in bodies of tens and hundreds, will act together under different leaders. Each hundred is armed with modern Mauser rifles supplied with from one to two hundred cartridges each, and has daily drill, exercise, and shooting practise. Besides this they perform night patrol duty between their villages and keep in touch with the adjacent district. Students are sent out to explain the necessity and duty of defending land and home. In the district of Chulun-chen north of Harbin this constabulary will be furnished with machine guns as will each village along the line of the Manchurian railway, and this is a matter with which the Russians must reckon. A large proportion of this force, moreover, is now known to be secretly in sympathy with the revolutionaries in the Yangste Valley.

European
Supplies

So far the Japanese have not permitted the formation of such a force on the line between Mukden and Antung near the mouth of the Yalu River. Last year German houses delivered 95,000 rifles in Manchuria, and one firm has engaged to supply the provincial government of Mukden with 50,000 rifles, which probably explains the presence of a German Vice-Consul at Tsitsihar where otherwise Germany has no material interest. One of the Chinese arsenals is busy turning out millions of cartridges. A Harbin paper, the *New Life*, describes the strengthening and arming of the Chinese constabulary as proceeding with unceasing energy in the back settlements of the Chinese Eastern Railway.



DR. SUN YAT SEN, ONE OF THE CHINESE REVOLUTIONARY LEADERS

(Who has spent the past five years soliciting foreign money and sympathy for the overthrow of the Manchu government)

Naval
Happenings

The importance of naval power, when intelligently directed, and the helplessness of ships of war against unforeseen accident, or when unskillfully managed, were brought vividly to the world's attention last month. Elsewhere in these pages we refer to the report of the commission under whose charge the battleship *Maine* is being raised in Havana Harbor, and to the death of Admiral Schley, both of which events recall our war with Spain thirteen years ago. By a rather interesting coincidence, just as the report was being issued on the condition of the *Maine*, the Republic of Cuba launched its first home-built warship and only a few days before the transatlantic liner, the *Olympic*, the largest vessel afloat, was rammed and seriously injured by the British war cruiser *Hawke*, whose captain made a mistake in maneuvering. Still a few days later, owing to radical chemical changes which had taken place in a large amount of powder stored in her magazine, a terrible explosion completely wrecked the French battleship *Liberté* in the harbor of Toulon, and cost the lives of more than 200 of her sailors. The value of sea power in a war, bearing out Captain Mahan's famous dictum, was, perhaps, never more strikingly illustrated than by the part played in the present Turko-Italian war by the Italian fleet. With a splendid army, much more numerous than that of Italy's, composed of some of the best fighting stock in the world, Turkey must sit down and passively submit to defeat after defeat because she has no ships and cannot get at her adversary. Meanwhile Italian ships can scour her coasts, bombard and capture her ports, and guard the transportation of Italian troops to where-soever the Italian Government may see fit to send them. Last month Secretary Meyer completed plans for a review in New York Harbor of the most powerful fleet ever assembled in American waters, on October 31 and November 1.

New Votes
for
Women

Last month reference was made in these pages to the heated contest in Maine over constitutional prohibition of the liquor traffic. The voters of the State were almost equally divided, and for weeks after the election the issue remained in doubt. It was at length conceded to the friends of the prohibition amendment. On the other side of the continent, the advocates of woman suffrage were campaigning for an amendment to the California constitution conferring on women the

right to vote. The State was thoroughly canvassed and every effort was made to get out a full vote both for and against the proposition. The election, which took place on October 10, was so close that for a time it was believed to be as indecisive as the voting in Maine. The earlier returns, from the cities and large towns, told strongly against the amendment, but the rural districts of the



"NOW DANCE!"

(The woman voter will now lend a hand in "cleaning up" California)

From the *Globe* (New York)

State, from which the results were reported later, scored quite as heavily in favor of it, so that the general result was the adoption of equal suffrage in California by a substantial plurality. Nearly a quarter of a million male voters took sufficient interest in the question to cast their votes. This was something over 60 per cent. of the number who voted for Governor at the last preceding State election.

The Sixth
Suffrage
State

California is the sixth State in the Union to adopt woman suffrage.

It is by far the largest of the group in point of population, and its two large cities, San Francisco and Los Angeles, compare with the metropolitan centers of the East. The adoption of a similar amendment by the State of Washington, one year ago, was followed almost at once by the active participation of women in the civic regeneration of Seattle. It is not probable that the women of California will have a like opportunity to display their strength in municipal politics for some time, and no very radical changes are looked for in the political conditions of the State at large. In the States of

Colorado, Utah, Idaho, and Wyoming, where women have had the ballot for many years, the outward and visible signs of change in governmental conditions are very few. It is believed by the advocates of equal suffrage that the example of California will have an important bearing on the prospects of their cause in Oregon, Kansas, and Wisconsin, where the question will be submitted to popular vote during the coming year. The immediate effect of the adoption of the California amendment is to increase the number of enfranchized women in the United States by nearly 100 per cent.

The people of California voted *California's "Radicalism"* on twenty-two other amendments along with that on the suffrage.

The total votes cast for and against these other propositions were very much smaller than the vote on suffrage, but the majorities for the initiative and referendum and for the recall of officials (including judges) were fairly overwhelming. The recall, which has been especially denounced of late by President Taft, received a majority of approximately 100,000 votes. The initiative and referendum had over 60,000. The majorities for the other amendments were much smaller. These provided for civil-service reform, workmen's compensation, and larger powers to cities and counties in making their own charters, and increased the powers of the State Railroad Commission. Following the method established by Oregon, the State government distributed, prior to the election, a pamphlet containing the amendments to be voted on and the official arguments pro and con.

New York's Primary Law The New York Legislature, after a session of extraordinary length, broken by a summer recess, adjourned early last month. The New York City charter, of which mention was made in these pages last month, was defeated at the eleventh hour, but election and primary bills satisfactory to Tammany were passed. The latter measure provides for a system of voting on candidates which differs so essentially from what is known in this country as the direct primary as to make the appropriation of the term a misnomer. One of the features of this system is the preference given to the "regular" organization ticket. Not only do the "regular" candidates have the preferential position on the ballot, but the use of the party emblem is permitted to cover these candidates' names, as well as the names of the nominees for committeemen. It is

further provided that party funds may be used by committees to nominate their own members, as well as to get their candidates for office named and to get out the vote for the regular ticket at the primary. The New York voter is slightly better off under the provisions of this bill than he was before its enactment, so far as his privileges in the naming of candidates are concerned. Before he had no chance whatever against the party organization in the event of an anti-machine movement within party lines. Now he has the opportunity, by making extraordinary exertion and going to great trouble and expense, to get the name of a desired candidate on the official primary ballot. After five years of agitation, this is the sum and substance of what in New York State goes under the name of "direct nominations."

Tammany and the Election Law Two of the amendments to the New York election law passed by the Legislature were promptly declared unconstitutional by the Court of Appeals. The New York constitution provides that in communities of less than 5000 inhabitants voters shall not be required to register personally on the first registration day. The Legislature sought to compel all citizens whose names were not on the last year's election lists to register personally. But the court held that in this provision the Legislature exceeded its power. Another amendment of the election law provided that a candidate's name should appear only once on the ballot. This, of course, was calculated to prevent fusion tickets in New York City. The court held that this was discrimination between electors as to the opportunities and facilities afforded for voting for candidates of their choice, and hence was unconstitutional. The immediate effect of this decision in New York City was the inauguration of a fusion campaign against Tammany for the county offices.

Connecticut's Legislature The session of at least one other State Legislature in 1911 will be remembered for its unusual length.

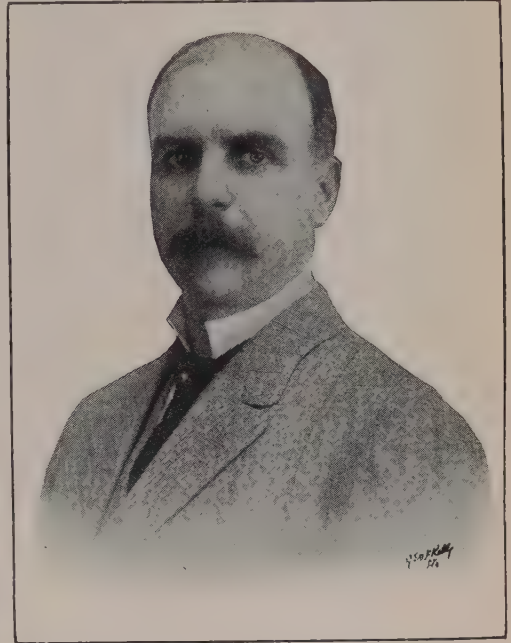
Although Governor Baldwin, of Connecticut, the first Democratic Governor of the State in eighteen years, had advocated a short session, the Legislature remained at work all through the summer and finally adjourned on September 26. Perhaps the most important work of the session was the creation of a public utilities commission, to replace the State Railroad Commission. This was the culmination of a six-years' campaign by the

business men of the State. Another important law provided for an industrial commission to investigate the conditions under which women and minors work. Connecticut sets a good example to other States in appropriating \$1,000,000 for the harbor of New London, instead of relying on the liberality of the general Government.

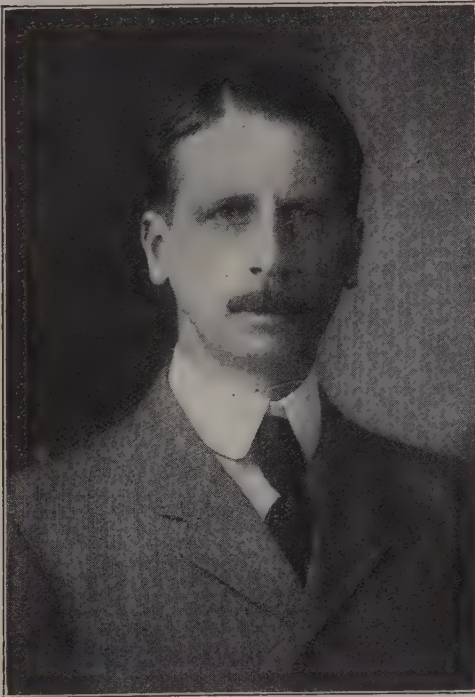
*City and
State
Campaigns*

In the country at large this is a political "off year," but in three or four of the States lively campaigns are now in progress and will culminate on November 7. In a few of the large cities of the country important municipal elections are taking place this autumn, as we pointed out last month. The San Francisco primaries, held late in September, resulted in a decisive victory for James Rolph, Jr., who will succeed Mayor McCarthy, the union labor official who was chosen two years ago. In the Philadelphia primaries, held on the last day of September, 265,000 ballots were cast. On the Republican side, George H. Earle, Jr., who had the support of United States Senator Penrose, won the nomination by a safe plurality, while Rudolph Blankenburg won both the Democratic and "Keystone" nominations. It is a sign of encouragement that five-sixths of the qualified voters in the

city that has been characterized as "corrupt and contented" are sufficiently exercised to come out and vote in a primary contest, and it must at least be said of the Philadelphia nominations that they represent their respective parties. In Baltimore, which is



JAMES ROLPH, JR.
(The next Mayor of San Francisco)



HON. PHILLIPS LEE GOLDSBOROUGH
(Republican Candidate for Governor of Maryland)

interested this year in an election of State officers, the exposure of frauds at the primaries has aroused intense indignation among men of all parties. Election officials and politicians of both parties are involved in the primary frauds, but the party in power, whose candidate for Governor this year is State Senator Arthur Pue Gorman, is likely to suffer more severely from the disclosures, particularly in the city of Baltimore. The Hon. Phillips Lee Goldsborough, the Republican candidate for the Governorship, is making an unusually vigorous canvass.

*Massachusetts
and
Rhode Island*

In Massachusetts, the State-wide primary had its first trial this year in the selection of candidates for the State offices. Governor Foss easily won the Democratic nomination for Governor, while Lieutenant-Governor Louis A. Frothingham was nominated by the Republicans. There was a large vote, and politicians of both parties express satisfaction with the workings of the primary machinery under the new law. In their platform the Demo-



Photograph by Meredith Janvier, Baltimore.

HON. ARTHUR PUE GORMAN

(Son of the late United States Senator Gorman, and now the Democratic candidate for Governor of Maryland)

crats of the State urge the abolition of party enrolment in primaries, favor the submission of the woman suffrage amendment to a popular vote, endorse the initiative and referendum and the direct election of United States Senators, and declare for immediate tariff revision. In Rhode Island, the Republicans have renominated Governor Pothier, while the Democratic nominee is the Hon. Lewis A. Waterman, who also led the party last year and was defeated by a margin of only a few hundred votes. The Democratic platform favors the initiative and referendum, the election of United States Senators by direct vote, and an income tax.

President
Taft's
Trip

The schedule of President Taft's trip across the continent, as outlined in last month's REVIEW OF REVIEWS, was carried out with few variations, and the return journey from the Pacific Coast was begun on October 17. Plans under consideration for an extension of the trip during the first half of November, if finally adopted, will bring the total mileage of the Presidential tour to over 16,000, thus breaking all known records. The President made many speeches on his way to and from the coast, and was everywhere cordially welcomed. At St. Louis he replied to criticisms of the Tariff Board made by Representative Underwood and others. In com-

menting on the qualifications of the members of this board, the President granted the impossibility of securing a board all the members of which shall have expert knowledge upon all the subjects of the tariff.

The
Tariff
Board

Even if such experts could be obtained, the advantage of having them in the board itself is questionable. The President believes it better to appoint men who are in the habit of making investigations, calculating costs, and digesting and analyzing evidence, so as to reach conclusions which may be stated for the benefit of those who intend to use them. With this result in view, the President put at the head of this Tariff Board Professor Henry C. Emery, a trained economist. With him are associated Mr. Alvin Sanders, for many years editor of the *Breeder's Gazette*; the Hon. James B. Reynolds, for four years an Assist-



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GOVERNOR FOSS OF MASSACHUSETTS

(Renominated by the Democrats on a "Progressive" platform)



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THE TARIFF BOARD IN SESSION IN WASHINGTON LAST MONTH

(From left to right: Thomas W. Page, Alvin H. Sanders, Henry C. Emery, James B. Reynolds, and William M. Howard)

ant Secretary of the Treasury, in charge of customs, under President Roosevelt; Professor Thomas W. Page, of the University of Virginia, an economist of standing; and former Congressman William M. Howard, of Georgia. While maintaining that the board as at present constituted is as independent and impartial as any board can be, the President still advocates the establishment by law of a permanent tariff commission, to be appointed by the President with the confirmation of the Senate.

*Progressives
in
Politics*

The first national conference of "Progressive" Republicans was held at Chicago on October 16. Two hundred delegates from twenty-five States endorsed the candidacy of Senator Robert M. La Follette, of Wisconsin, for the Presidency and declared for a direct primary as a means for the expression of a Presidential choice. The leading participants in this conference were the Hon. James R. Garfield, of Ohio; United States Senators Crawford, of South Dakota, and Clapp, of Minnesota; and Professor C. E. Merriam, of Chicago. It was announced that Senator La Follette would



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SENATOR ROBERT M. LA FOLLETTE OF WISCONSIN

(Progressive Republican Candidate for President,
endorsed by the Chicago conference held
last month)

shortly begin speech-making tours of the Middle West for the purpose of setting forth the principles of the Progressive movement.

*A Real
Indian
Conference*

A national convention was held by American Indians on their own initiative for the advancement of their race at Columbus, Ohio, on October 12-15. The annual Lake Mohonk conferences, which have done much in the past for the uplift of the Indian, have always been held under the auspices of white people. The Columbus gathering was a purely Indian affair. The only participants were men and women of Indian blood. They represented many tribes and many States. But the sole object of the convention was the benefit of the whole race of native Americans. In the program of the conference industrial problems had an important place, as well as higher education and the preservation of native Indian art.

*The
Tobacco
Trust's Plan*

On October 16 the American Tobacco Company filed with the Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York its plan of dissolution by which it proposes to surrender its monopoly of both the domestic and foreign tobacco trade and restore lawful conditions as directed by the United States Supreme Court in its notable decision last June. If the Circuit Court approves the plan, the business in tobacco and related products will in the future be divided among fourteen "separate and independent companies, no one of them having control of or dominance in the trade as to any of the products manufactured by it; no one of them having any dominance or controlling position as to the purchase of raw material of any kind; no one of them having any interest, by way of ownership of stocks or otherwise, in any other of them, and each of them being a company, whether now existing or to be created under the plan, in which the American Tobacco Company will have no interest." The radical nature of the changes is emphasized by reference to the fact that the trust, either directly or through the ownership of stock, has heretofore controlled the production of 75 per cent. of the smoking tobacco manufactured in the United States, 80 per cent. of the plug tobacco, 79 per cent. of the fine cut, 80 per cent. of cigarettes, 13 per cent. of cigars, 90 per cent. of snuff, and 93 per cent. of little cigars. It was dominant also in the business of manufacturing licorice paste and Porto Rican tobacco, controlled the entire trade with for-

eign countries, and was an important factor in the domestic retail trade. The stocks, factories, brands, and other properties with which the American Tobacco Company proposes to part in order to restore competition in all these lines is estimated to be worth \$115,000,000 and earned a net annual income based on actual results in 1910 of \$22,593,312.

*The
Investing
Public's
Interest*

In the very nature of the case the disintegration plan is complicated in detail. That part of it in which the investing public is most interested, however, contemplates the distribution of the domestic business of the American Tobacco Company among three corporations besides itself, namely the Liggett and Myers Tobacco Company and the P. Lorillard Company, to be organized, and the R. J. Reynolds Tobacco Company, an existing corporation. These three companies are to issue new bonds and stock to the total amount of \$115,000,000 and the present holders of Tobacco securities are to be offered the following exchange: For the 6 per cent. Tobacco bonds, 120 in cash for one-half of each individual's holdings and for the other half new 7 per cent. bonds at par of the Liggett and Myers and Lorillard companies; for the 4 per cent. bonds, 96 in cash for one-half and for the other half new 5 per cent. bonds at par in the Liggett and Myers and Lorillard Companies; for one-third of each individual's holdings of preferred stock new 7 per cent. preferred stock at par in the two new companies.

*Common
Stockholders
to Furnish
New Cash*

The common stock of the American Tobacco Company is to be left in the hands of the present holders, frequently referred to as the "insiders." But they are to be called upon to subscribe at par to \$36,651,925 new common stock of the companies to be organized and will receive in the nature of a dividend the two-thirds of the capital stock of the R. J. Reynolds Company, now owned by the American Tobacco Company. The latter will thus be able to pay off its present outstanding bonds, and will be left with \$52,549,400 preferred stock, to which voting rights will be given, and \$40,260,400 common stock as its only outstanding securities. Attorneys for the Tobacco Trust point out that none of the four companies will in effect have any interest in or relation to the others, although at the outset they will all of necessity have many stockholders in common. Two-thirds of the stock of the United Cigars Stores Company now owned by the American Tobacco

Photograph by Baker, Columbus

THE FIRST NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE AMERICAN INDIAN ASSOCIATION, HELD AT COLUMBUS, OHIO, OCTOBER 12-15



Company will be distributed to the latter's common stockholders. The Imperial Tobacco Company of Great Britain and Ireland and the British-American Company Ltd. have been bound by contracts with the American trust which forbid them from doing business in the United States, except in buying leaf tobacco. These contracts will be terminated, leaving each of the foreign companies free to compete in this country. The five "accessory companies" which the Supreme Court found to constitute combinations in restraint of trade are to be divided up into ten different companies in much the same way that the American Tobacco Company itself will divide its domestic business.

*How the
Plan Has Been
Received*

With the Tobacco Company's dissolution plan as it has been submitted to the Circuit Court most of the security-holders are said to be satisfied, and there are many authorities who hold the opinion that under it all of the requirements specified in the Supreme Court's decree will be fairly met. Strong independent tobacco interests, however, have raised their voices in vigorous protest against it. They point significantly to the admission that the four companies among which the trust's domestic trade is to be distributed will, at least at the outset, have many stockholders in common. They assert that the plan seeks to leave the control of the separate parts of the reorganized company in the hands of the same group of individuals who now control the trust through their ownership of its common stock and that, if it is carried out, conditions in the trade will be as bad, if not worse, than they have been in the past, especially in that they will have the sanction of the courts. Manifestly these independents are not disposed to accept the suggestion that, "the stock is all marketable and in course of time may be largely redistributed." They regard as insignificant the suggestion that the necessity imposed upon the holders of the American Tobacco common stock of subscribing at par to nearly \$37,000,000 new securities is in effect an assessment upon them; and that those holders will lose the \$22,000,000 represented by the proposed redemption of one-half of the \$53,000,000 6 per cent. debentures above par and the increased interest and preferred dividend charges. Possibly these independent interests may be able to convince the court that the proposed plan is not in keeping either with the letter or the spirit of the law as it

has been interpreted. On the other hand, it is likely that they will find it extremely difficult to suggest specific changes which would meet their own objections and at the same time accord to innocent investors in the Tobacco Company's securities the treatment to which they are entitled. Developments as they will arise from time to time during the Circuit Court's consideration of the plan will be followed carefully by investors and the business community at large. The company has asked the court to extend until March 1, 1912, the time within which the plan may be carried out.

*An End
to the
"Electrical
Trust"*

There came, last month, a concrete illustration of the doctrine that "big business" ought to accept the Supreme Court's construction of the Sherman Law in the Tobacco and Oil cases, and voluntarily reform itself without the necessity of prosecution by the Government. The illustration was afforded by the National Electric Lamp Company, a New Jersey corporation acting as a holding concern for the General Electric Company and thirty-five subsidiaries, and controlling practically the entire trade of the country in what are known as "carbon filament" lamps, of which more than 80,000,000 are sold annually. The Government's case had been filed in the United States Circuit Court at Toledo, Ohio, early in the year, the defendant companies had made their answer, and the Government was about ready to enter testimony when the Standard Oil and Tobacco decisions were handed down. Shortly thereafter the electrical people indicated their desire to submit to a decree. The one rendered on October 12 was the result of a series of conferences held throughout the summer between the companies' representatives and the Department of Justice. By it the National Lamp Company and all of the subsidiaries are ordered dissolved and the General Electric Company is forbidden hereafter to conduct any business in the manufacture or sale of electric lamps except in its own name. Freedom of competition in the future is insured, first, by putting an end to the practice of fixing the resale prices, wholesale or retail, on all lamps manufactured; second, by forbidding all contracts with dealers, jobbers, or consumers, through which it had been possible to continue the monopoly in certain styles of lamps long after the patents on them had expired; and, third, by enjoining the companies from entering into agreements by which independent manufac-

turers of parts of complete lamps were bound not to sell their products to any one except the trust, save on unequal terms.

*Railroad
Earnings in
Depressed
Times*

As an offset to all of the discouraging talk that has lately been current about the general depression of trade, the business man with an eye to the outlook for the next few months will find some consolation, even though it be slight, in the trend of railroad gross and net earnings as shown by recently published figures. Taken as a whole, the results are not unfavorable, if for no other reason than that they fail to bear out the extremely pessimistic utterances of so many of the railroad men themselves. It is necessary, moreover, to make the present comparisons with months during 1910, when the roads were nearly all reporting close to record earnings. It should be borne in mind that the fiscal year which ended on June 30 last was a good one for the railroads of the country, in so far as gross business was concerned, but that by reason of their "higher cost of living," the net results were disappointing. According to a late bulletin of the Bureau of Railway Economics, showing reports from 93 per cent. of the railroad mileage of the United States, total operating revenues received during the fiscal year amounted to \$2,700,232,308, or an average of \$11,997 per mile of line; total operating expenses amounted to \$1,855,253,049, or \$8243 per mile, leaving net operating revenue of \$844,979,259, or \$3754 per mile. As compared with the previous fiscal year, total revenues decreased only \$70 per mile, or 0.6 per cent. The expenses increased \$236 per mile, or 2.9 per cent., the result being the considerable decrease in net operating revenue of \$305 per mile, or 7.5 per cent.

*The Railroads'
Cost of
Living*

Thus while total revenues for 1911 were only slightly less than the total for 1910, the highest of any preceding year, expenses jumped to a new high record figure and net operating revenue, therefore, decreased out of proportion to the decrease in total revenue. The bulletin adds significantly that the net would have shown an even greater decrease had it not been for the stern economies practised by the railways in their maintenance accounts. Complete reports such as the Bureau publishes are not available for later months, but, according to the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, results in July, the first month of the new fiscal year, disclosed relatively small changes, aggregate gross earnings of 722 roads

showing a decrease of only .68 per cent. as compared with the corresponding month of 1910, and net earnings the slight increase of .04 per cent. Still less complete are the reports thus far available for August and September, particularly as to net earnings. In both months, however, the tendency to a moderate improvement, as compared with the corresponding periods last year, is more or less distinctly indicated, although the final figures may be found to alter results materially. Grouping the roads geographically, it is found that the Western lines, and perhaps the majority of those in the East, still continue to report decreases in gross and net earnings, while practically all Southern lines show substantial gains in both.

*The "Silent
Panic"
in Stocks*

Liquidation in the stock market, to which some reference was made in these pages last month, continued at such length that by the end of September the situation was being described in "Wall Street" as a "silent panic." By that it was not meant, of course, that the market was confronted with unsettling factors of the kind that caused the real panic in 1907-8; but rather that confidence had been destroyed to such extent that investment issues were being more or less needlessly sacrificed by scores of small holders. Prices of the leading railroad or industrial stocks did not anywhere near approach the bargain figures at which they sold during the disturbance of four years ago. But the decline was not arrested until new "low records" since that time were made pretty generally throughout the list. Even the high-grade dividend-paying railroad stocks like Pennsylvania, Atchison, Great Northern, Northern Pacific, Union Pacific, Southern Pacific and Norfolk & Western suffered about as much as any of the old-time speculative favorites, the decline in the standard railway stocks ranging from twelve to thirty points from the high prices reached in the "bull market" of July. More recently stocks have advanced substantially,—due, as many observers believe, to a considerable amount of investment buying, induced by the comparatively attractive prices.

*The
"Steel"
Statement*

The common stock of the United States Steel Corporation was most prominent in the September decline. During the closing week of the month transactions in that issue reached the enormous total of \$265,000,000 par value, which is more than one-half the total amount out-

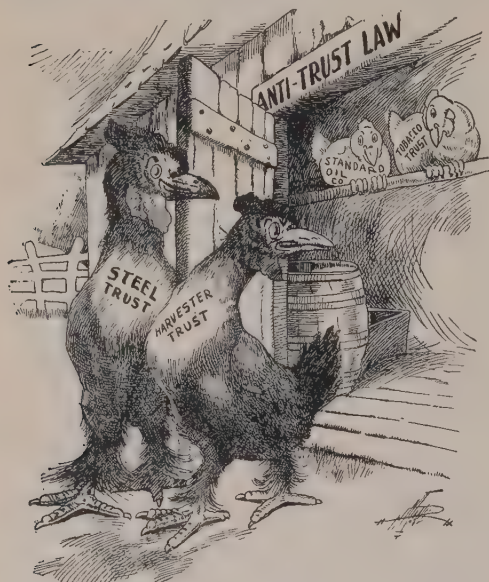
standing. The selling of the stock was accompanied by rumors that those in control of the corporation, moved by the fear of a possible attack by the Government under the Sherman Law, had in contemplation a plan for voluntary disintegration. Plausibility was given to the rumor by an interview with Attorney-General Wickersham, published in the *New York World*, in which that Government official was quoted as saying, in answer to a question as to how many trusts there were that ought to be dissolved, that he had studied the situation somewhat, that while he had found fewer than he expected, there were, nevertheless, about one hundred in all "in addition to the number

recall another time when Mr. Morgan had put his pen to a newspaper statement of any kind.

Rodgers'
Plucky
Air Trip

Of the several aviators who started on the transcontinental trip in September, Galbraith P.

Rodgers is the only one who has made any considerable progress. Rodgers started from Sheepshead Bay, N. Y., on September 17, and reached Texas on October 18, having in the month's time covered a distance of over 1700 miles. This left 1300 miles between him and the coast. The total distance achieved exceeds that of any other cross-country flight to date. Henry W. Atwood's trip from St. Louis to New York covered 1265 miles. It must be remembered, however, that Rodgers took about three weeks to add 500 miles to Atwood's record. Again, in the All-England Circuit race of last summer, André Beaumont finished the entire course of 1010 miles in less than four days, with Vedrines only about an hour behind him. And these flights were made with stops and starts from designated stations. While there is nothing wonderful, therefore, in Rodgers' total distance, considering the time consumed, he deserves great credit for his pluck and persistence. Should he indeed succeed in reaching his destination on the Pacific Coast, the achievement will have been a most remarkable exhibition of sustained skill and endurance.



WILL THESE CHICKENS COME HOME TO ROOST?
From the *Herald* (Washington)

against which we have already begun suits." He would neither confirm nor deny that the Steel Corporation was among the latter. The persistence of the Steel rumor, however, finally called forth from the directors of the corporation themselves a statement to the effect that the corporation was organized for business reasons, to promote business and not to restrain trade or obtain a monopoly; that the corporation had scrupulously observed the law and recognized the just rights of its competitors; and that its counsel advised that the existence of the company was not in violation of the Sherman Law. This statement as given to the press was signed by Mr. J. P. Morgan, as well as by Mr. Elbert H. Gary, Chairman of the Board of Directors. Men of long experience in "Wall Street" could not

Aerial Post
and
Aviation Deaths

A feature of the Nassau meet was the mail-carrying trip of Postmaster-General Hitchcock in a biplane piloted by Captain Beck, of the army aviation corps. The Postmaster-General is of the opinion that an aerial post would be useful and economical under certain conditions—for instance, in regions where the topographic features of the country make land traveling difficult. This, he stated, is the case in parts of Alaska, and in the canyon district of the Colorado River, where extended detours are necessary to effect a crossing that could easily be made by an aeroplane. Mr. Hitchcock is following up his ideas in this line by including in his budget an item of \$50,000 for aerial post tests. Meanwhile, down among the sandhills of North Carolina, the scene of their early triumphs, the Wright Brothers have been quietly experimenting with a new "glider"—an aeroplane without an engine. The glider is of biplane design, varying little from the ordinary Wright aeroplane. Many short glides have been successfully made.

Just what these shrewd pioneers in the flying art will evolve from their experiments remains to be seen. If the Wrights can produce a safer machine, it will be heartily welcomed; for the death toll in aviation has continued at a regrettable rate. Beginning with the death of Lieutenant Selfridge in 1908, and including the sad accident to Eugene Ely at Macon, Georgia, on October 19 last, the total of those killed reached one hundred and one. In 1909 four aviators lost their lives, in 1910 thirty-two, and to date in the present year, sixty-four. France heads the list with thirty-seven, while America sacrificed seventeen, Germany twelve, Italy eight, and England seven.

*Bursting
Dams*

The narrow Pennsylvania valley in which lay the little town of Austin was swept, on September 30, by a tremendous flood, caused by the bursting of a large concrete dam which impounded water for storage purposes. Austin, a village of 2500 people, was practically wiped off the map, and the loss of life consequent on the flood and the fire that followed, although less than at first recorded, was considerable. Many who read the newspaper reports of the disaster must have been reminded of the Johnstown flood of 1889, the scene of which was about one hundred miles from Austin, and in which more than 2000



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POSTMASTER-GENERAL HITCHCOCK CARRYING A SACK
OF MAIL IN AN AEROPLANE

lives were lost and property valued at \$10,000,000 was swept away. In both instances there had been warnings, but they had gone unheeded. Two such calamities should suffice to impress the State of Pennsylvania with the importance of safeguarding the lives of her citizens through some method of inspec-



THE BROKEN DAM AT AUSTIN, PENNSYLVANIA

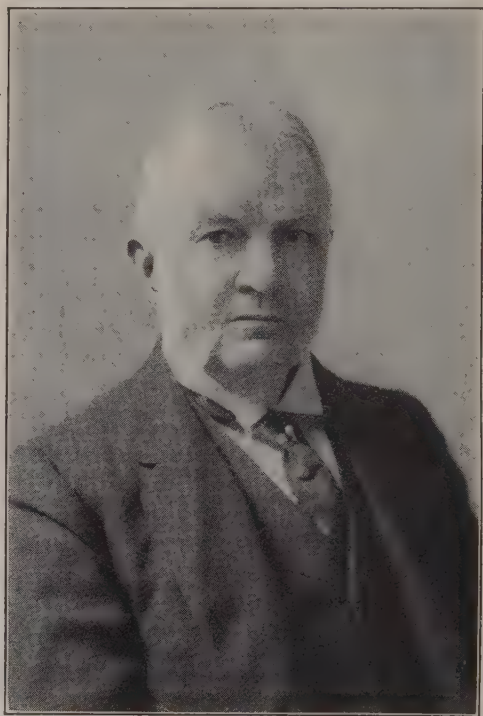


Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington
REAR-ADMIRAL WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY

tion for engineering works of this character. In Pennsylvania, as in most other States, there is at present no system of official inspection, and no way of holding any person or corporation responsible for the material or construction of dams built for power or storage purposes, even though thousands of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property may be at the mercy of a faulty construction such as the one at Austin. During the week following the Pennsylvania disaster, the business district of Black River Falls, Wis., was destroyed in a similar way through the collapse of wings of dams due to heavy rains. Fortunately the loss of life was confined to five persons, since timely warning was given and heeded. The property loss aggregated probably \$2,500,000.

The Obituary Record Last month's necrology contains the names of several Americans, well advanced in years, who had won marked distinction each in his own field of endeavor. Justice Harlan, whose portrait appears on page 553 of this REVIEW, died at Washington on October 14. Justice Harlan was the oldest member of the United States

Supreme Court, and had served nearly thirty-four years on the bench. Less than two weeks before Justice Harlan's death had occurred that of Rear-Admiral Winfield Scott Schley, whose distinguished career in the navy had extended over half a century. Long before the battle of Santiago, in the Spanish-American War, made Rear-Admiral Schley a national figure, he had won distinction as a naval officer during the Civil War, in the attack on the Korean forts on the Yalu in 1871, in his successful management of the Greely relief expedition, and in many other posts of responsibility in which he had been placed. The Hon. Cornelius N. Bliss, of New York, who was President McKinley's Secretary of the Interior, died in New York on October 9, in his seventy-ninth year. Mr. Bliss was a successful and able business



HON. CORNELIUS BLISS, OF NEW YORK

man, and had served as treasurer of the Republican National Committee in four successive campaigns. Dr. John Bascom, former president of the University of Wisconsin and professor emeritus at Williams College, died at Williamstown on October 3, at the age of 84.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From September 21 to October 19, 1911)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

September 23.—President Taft speaks at St. Louis, defending the Tariff Board. . . . Obadiah Gardner (Dem.) is appointed United States Senator to succeed the late William P. Frye (Rep.).

September 24.—The second part of the Commissioner of Corporation's report upon the American Tobacco Company is made public.

September 25.—A recount of the recent primary vote of Baltimore is undertaken by the grand jury because of evidence of wholesale repeating.

September 26.—Massachusetts' first direct primary results in the renomination of Governor Foss by the Democrats and the selection of Louis A. Frothingham to head the Republican ticket. . . . The Connecticut General Assembly ends an extraordinarily long session, having passed a workmen's compensation and employer's liability bill and a measure creating a public utilities commission. . . . Lawrence Gresser, President of the Borough of Queens, New York City, is removed by Governor Dix for inefficiency.

September 27.—A suit against the so-called Lumber Trust is brought by the Government in the federal court at Denver. . . . The voters of Atlanta, Ga., reject the proposed charter providing for commission government.

September 29.—President Taft explains his tariff vetoes in a speech at Ottumwa, Ia.

September 30.—In the Philadelphia primaries, George H. Earle, Jr., wins the Republican nomination for mayor, and Rudolph Blankenburg is chosen as the nominee of the Keystone and Democratic parties. . . . President Taft spends the day at the Missouri State Fair at Sedalia. . . . The proposed charter for New York City fails of passage in the Legislature.

October 1.—New York City's second Budget Exhibit is opened by Mayor Gaynor (see page 572).

October 2.—President Taft is cordially welcomed at Lincoln, Neb.; William Jennings Bryan proposes a toast to the President of the United States. . . . An investigation of the election of United States Senator Stephenson is begun at Milwaukee by a committee of the Senate.

October 3.—President Taft, at Denver, takes issue with the Public Lands Convention and declares himself in favor of leasing coal and phosphate lands.

October 4.—The Secretary of the Navy decides to mobilize at New York, on October 31, all the available war vessels on the Atlantic coast. . . . A brief is filed by the Attorney-General, in the United States Supreme Court, attacking the anthracite coal-carrying railroads under the Anti-Trust law. . . . Rhode Island Democrats nominate Lewis E. Waterman for Governor.

October 5.—President Taft speaks at Salt Lake City, advocating the arbitration treaties and explaining his tariff vetoes. . . . Four manufacturers of wall paper and four jobbers are indicted by a federal grand jury in Cleveland on a charge of violating the Anti-Trust law.

October 6.—The New York Legislature adjourns after passing a direct nominations bill applicable to all State officers excepting those voted upon by the entire State. . . . A legislative investigation of corruption at Albany is begun.

October 9.—President Taft, speaking at Bellingham, Wash., predicts that the Panama Canal will be ready for use on July 1, 1913. . . . The opening of the United States Supreme Court is marked by motions in many important cases.

October 10.—At a special election in California an amendment to the State constitution granting the suffrage to women is carried by a slight majority, while those providing for the initiative and referendum and the recall receive overwhelming majorities. . . . President Taft speaks at Seattle and Tacoma. . . . The Senate committee investigating the election of United States Senator Lorimer resumes its hearings at Chicago. . . . The Court of Appeals in New York State declares unconstitutional the provision of the Levy election law which prohibited the printing of a candidate's name in more than one column on a ballot.

October 12.—The United States Circuit Court at Toledo orders the dissolution of the so-called Electrical Trust, engaged in manufacturing and selling incandescent lamps and accessories. . . . Both the Republican and Independence League organizations in New York County nominate the fusion ticket suggested by the Democratic League, which has bolted the Tammany ticket.

October 13.—The Review of Reviews Company brings suit in the United States Circuit Court at New York to enjoin the Post-Office Department from keeping the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS out of the fast-mail service. . . . President Taft, speaking at Sacramento, advocates the Honduran and Nicaraguan treaties. . . . The United States District Court at Baltimore affirms the Government's contention that the so-called Bathtub Trust should be dissolved.

October 15.—The annual report of the Commissioner of Pensions shows 28,985 fewer names on the roll and a reduction of \$3,498,154 in the amount paid.

October 16.—Two hundred "Progressive" Republicans, meeting at Chicago, endorse Senator La Follette for President and favor a direct primary for nominating Presidential candidates. . . . The Isthmian Canal Commission urges the fixing of Panama Canal tolls and legislation to govern the zone (see page 595). . . . The National Monetary Commission begins a two-days' hearing at New York on the proposed monetary reforms.

October 17.—President Taft, leaving Los Angeles, Cal., starts eastward on the second half of his 13,000-mile journey. . . . The federal court at Montgomery, Ala., forbids the Southern Wholesale Grocery Association to restrict competition.

October 18.—Rhode Island Republicans renominate Governor Pothier.

October 19.—Chairman Aldrich submits to the National Monetary Commission a supplemental outline of his plan for currency reform. . . . Mayor

Gaynor, of New York, signs the bill providing for equal pay for men and women teachers in the public schools. . . . The Board of Estimate of New York votes to purchase sites for two seaside parks, at Coney Island and at Rockaway.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

September 21.—The general election in Canada, brought about by the proposed reciprocity agreement with the United States, results in the defeat of the Liberals under Premier Laurier and the election of a Conservative and Nationalist government by a majority of 37. . . . The general strike in Madrid is a failure.

September 22.—Gen. Bernardo Reyes withdraws from the contest for the Presidency of Mexico.

September 23.—M. Kokovtsov, Minister of Finance in the Stolypin cabinet, assumes the premiership of Russia.

September 24.—The French Government, in order to lower the cost of foodstuffs, induces the railroads to increase to eighty pounds the limit of the agricultural parcels post.

September 25.—Dmitri Bogrov, the assassin of Premier Stolypin, is hanged at Kiev.

September 27.—The first election in Sweden under universal suffrage and proportional representation results in a marked increase in the Socialist strength.

September 28.—Persian Government troops defeat a large force of rebels near Savah.

September 30.—The Portuguese Government frustrates a Royalist plot to seize the city of Oporto. . . . The Swedish cabinet, under Premier Lindman, resigns as a result of the recent election.

October 1.—The first election in Mexico under the new régime results in the practically unanimous choice of Francisco I. Madero, Jr., leader of the recent revolution, as President.

October 2.—President von Hellen, of the Finnish High Court of Justice, is shot dead by a shop clerk at Abo, who immediately kills himself.

October 5.—A number of small towns in northern Portugal, near the Spanish frontier, are captured by the Monarchists. . . . During a session of the lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath, a Dalmatian workman attempts to assassinate the Minister of Justice.

October 6.—The Liberal ministry in Canada, under Sir Wilfrid Laurier, resigns, and Robert L. Borden, the Conservative leader, accepts the premiership (see page 555). . . . K. Staaff forms a Liberal ministry in Sweden.

October 7.—The Nicaraguan Congress elects General Luis Mena as President of the republic for a term of four years.

October 8.—The Monarchist uprising in Portugal is believed to have been a failure; the troops remain loyal to the republic and defeat the revolutionists.

October 9.—Premier Borden of Canada announces the personnel of his cabinet. . . . The Panama National Assembly votes to expend \$6,000,000 in railroad construction.

October 10.—A council for the settlement of labor disputes is appointed by the British Government. . . . In order to relieve conditions arising from the high cost of food, the city of Berlin places large quantities of sea fish on sale at low prices.

October 11.—Earl Grey retires as Governor-General of Canada.

October 12.—President-elect Madero, of Mexico, states that he will not urge the election of Pino Suarez for the Vice-Presidency.

October 13.—The Duke of Connaught takes the oath as Governor-General of Canada.

October 15.—Five hundred Mexican insurgents are killed during a battle with two forces of Government troops.

October 17.—The sessions of the German Reichstag are resumed; a letter from the Chancellor states that it would be inopportune to discuss foreign politics at present.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

September 21.—The voters of Canada, by electing a Conservative government, defeat the proposed reciprocity agreement with the United States. . . . Chinese Government troops relieve the besieged city of Cheng-Tu and find the foreigners safe.

September 30.—France accepts certain modification in the Moroccan agreement proposed by Germany.

October 4.—Dr. Pocras, minister from Panama to the United States, is recalled. . . . Russia formally recognizes the Republic of Portugal.

October 7.—The Peruvian legation at Bogota, Colombia, is attacked by a mob because of Peru's refusal to evacuate disputed territory.

October 8.—Spanish forces defeat hostile tribesmen in Morocco, but suffer heavy losses. . . . Peru demands satisfaction from Colombia for the attack on the legation at Bogota.

October 9.—Nicaragua is notified by Great Britain that the Ethelburga Sydicate, of London, will press its claims for the revenues unless the coupons on the loans of 1909 are paid.

October 10.—It is announced at Berlin that the negotiations between France and Germany concerning Morocco have been satisfactorily concluded.

WAR BETWEEN ITALY AND TURKEY

September 27.—The Italian *chargé d'affaires* at Constantinople is directed to present to Turkey a statement of Italy's grievances and demands.

September 28.—An Italian fleet of four battleships and three cruisers arrives off Tripoli.

September 29.—War is declared by Italy against Turkey, the latter's reply to the Italian ultimatum being unsatisfactory. . . . The commander of the Italian fleet demands the surrender of the forts and town of Tripoli. . . . The Turkish cabinet under Hakki Bey resigns.

October 3.—The Italian fleet bombards the city of Tripoli, causing heavy damage to the forts and public buildings.

October 4.—A new Turkish cabinet is formed, comprised mostly of members of the Young Turk party and headed by Said Pasha.

October 6.—The Turkish Government, in a note to the State Department at Washington, explains its position in Tripoli. . . . Detachments from the Italian warships are landed on the coasts of Tripoli and Cyrenaica and occupy the forts.

October 8.—The Turkish Government sends a note to the powers asking intervention pending

negotiations looking toward the end of hostilities while preserving the sovereignty of Turkey.

October 11.—It is announced at London that Italy has addressed a note to the powers stating that she will be satisfied with nothing less than annexation of Tripoli.

October 11-12.—Troops are landed from the Italian transports at the city of Tripoli and at Benghazi, Derna, and several other places.

October 14.—The Turkish Parliament convenes; the speech from the throne, read by the Grand Vizier, indicates that opposition to Italian occupation of Tripoli will be continued.

October 16.—The Italian fleet bombards Derna, destroying the forts. . . . The aviation corps of the Italian army is landed at Tripoli City. . . . A movement is begun in the Turkish Chamber, by Tripolitanian Deputies, to impeach former Premier Hakki Bey and his ministers.

October 18.—The Turkish fleet leaves Constantinople for the Sea of Marmora.

October 19.—A dispatch from a German newspaper correspondent in Tunis states that the Italians are sustaining heavy losses in night skirmishes with Turks in Tripoli; cholera also claims many victims among the Italian troops. . . . The Turkish Deputies pass a vote of confidence in the government.

THE REVOLUTION IN CHINA

September 21.—The city of Cheng-Tu, Szechuen Province, besieged by revolutionists for two weeks, is relieved by Government troops.

September 24.—A battle between Government troops and rebels, ten miles south of Cheng-Tu, results in a slight advantage to the former.

September 28.—It is rumored at Peking that Prince Chun will soon resign.

September 29.—An edict is issued stating that the resignation of Prince Chun would not be accepted.

October 6.—American Methodist missionaries estimate that 10,000 were killed during the recent fighting around Cheng-Tu, four-fifths of them being rebels.

October 10.—An uprising in Hu-Peh Province, brewing for some days, directed against the Manchukuo dynasty and not against foreigners, assumes serious proportions; the revolutionists capture Wu-Chang, the capital.

October 12.—The Hu-Peh provincial assembly secedes from the imperial government. . . . The revolutionists announce their intention to form a republic. . . . The cities of Hangkow and Hanyang are occupied by the rebels without opposition.

October 14.—Yuan Shih-kai, former Grand Councillor and commander-in-chief of the army and navy, who was dismissed several years ago, is recalled and appointed Viceroy of Hu-Peh and Huanan provinces. . . . The commander of the revolutionists at Hankow tells the foreigners there that he will protect them so long as they remain neutral.

October 15.—The Government refuses to transmit telegraphic messages either to or from the disaffected provinces.

October 16.—Yuan Shih-kai accepts the post of Viceroy of Hu-Peh and Hu-Nan. . . . An application by the Government for a loan of \$3,000,000 from foreign bankers is refused. . . . Serious runs on native banks are caused by heavy withdrawals and transferrals to foreign banks.

October 17.—Detachments from the German warships, landing at Hangkow, are attacked by a native mob.

October 18.—After an all-day battle at Hangkow, the imperial troops gain a slight advantage over the rebels; the Chinese fleet in the Yangtse-Kiang takes part in the fighting.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

September 21.—Many lives are lost in a typhoon which destroys several towns in Formosa. . . . The Bank of England raises its discount rate from 4 to 5 per cent.

September 23.—The Argentine battleship *Moreno*, the greatest fighting unit afloat, is launched at Camden, N. J. . . . Fifteen hundred shop employees of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railroad go on strike.

September 24.—Thirteen persons are killed and eight seriously injured when a train hits a haywagon filled with merrymakers near Neenah, Wis.

September 25.—President Taft and Governor Hadley address the third annual Conservation Congress at Kansas City, Mo.

September 26.—The French battleship *Liberté* is blown to pieces by a series of explosions in her magazines; 235 of the crew lose their lives. . . . President Taft speaks at the celebration, at Hutchinson, Kan., of the fiftieth anniversary of the admission of Kansas to the Union. . . . The Bank of Egypt, at London, fails with liabilities of \$7,500,000.

September 27.—It is announced at Dublin that the railway strike has been practically settled.

September 29.—The executive department of the Grand Trunk Railway is completely reorganized.

September 30.—The bursting of a dam at Austin, Pa., releasing the waters of a storage reservoir 45 feet deep, practically destroys that town and several smaller ones and causes the loss of 74 lives. . . . A general strike is declared among the car shop employees of the Illinois Central Railroad and the Harriman lines. . . . The mayor of Indianapolis breaks a "corner" in the local market by selling potatoes in small quantities at wholesale cost.

October 1.—A bust of Charles Stewart Parnell is unveiled by John Redmond at Dublin.

October 2.—The government report on the cotton crop sustains the earlier predictions of a record yield.

October 3.—The French President and cabinet attend the burial of 168 of the identified dead from the wreck of the *Liberté*. . . . A severe storm off the Holland coast destroys nearly 150 vessels.

October 3-5.—Serious rioting occurs at New Orleans and McComb City, following conflicts between strikers and strike-breakers.

October 4.—Speaking before the Detroit Board of Commerce, George W. Perkins pleads for the amendment of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. . . . The fourth Ecumenical Methodist Conference meets at Toronto.

October 5.—Eight balloons start from St. Louis in contest for the Bennett and Lahm trophies.

October 6.—The collapse of two dams on the Black River, Wis., floods large sections of Black River Falls and several smaller towns, causing the death of five persons and the destruction of prop-

erty amounting to \$2,500,000. . . . Dr. Guy Potter Benton is inaugurated as president of the University of Vermont.

October 7.—The firemen's strike on the Georgia & Florida Railroad, which for ten days completely tied up traffic, is settled by concessions to the employees. . . . Coffee prices at New York reach the highest point in sixteen years.

October 8.—The German balloon *Berlin II* lands at Ladysmith, Wis., winning the James Gordon Bennett cup and covering 468 miles.

October 10.—C. P. Rodgers, arriving at Marshall Mo., in his aeroplane journey across the continent, establishes a new world's record for distance of 1400 miles.

October 12.—The Ecumenical Methodist Conference at Toronto establishes an international commission for the advancement of world peace.

October 14.—President Taft breaks ground for the Panama-Pacific Exposition at San Francisco, in the presence of more than 100,000 persons. . . . Italy's third superdreadnought, *Leonardo da Vinci*, is launched at Genoa.

October 15.—The ecclesiastical celebration of Cardinal Gibbons' jubilee is held in the Baltimore Cathedral. . . . The Italian battleship *Giulio Cesare* is launched at Genoa.

October 16.—Thirty-six sticks of dynamite are found on a railroad viaduct near Santa Barbara, Cal., a few hours before the President's special train is due; two men who placed them there make their escape.

October 19.—Eugene Ely, one of the best known American aviators, falls to his death in his machine at Macon, Ga.

OBITUARY

September 21.—Ahmed Arabi Pasha, the exiled leader of the rebellion in Egypt in 1822, 70. . . . Dr. James C. Hepburn, the first medical missionary to Japan, 96.

September 23.—Charles Battell Loomis, the humorist, 50.

September 24.—Dr. Robert E. Doran, a noted New York alienist, 41.

September 26.—Russell Judson Waters, former Representative from California and a prominent banker, 68. . . . Ex-Judge Henry Pierson Hedges, of New York, the oldest alumnus at Yale College, 94.

September 27.—Fletcher Dutton Proctor, formerly Governor of Vermont, 50. . . . Aaron K. Loring, of Boston, the first to conduct a circulating library, 74.

September 28.—Charles Frederick Manderson, former Senator from Nebraska, 74. . . . Rev. William Patrick, principal of Manitoba Presbyterian College, 59.

September 29.—Baron Northcote, formerly governor-general of Australia, 65.

October 2.—Rear-Admiral Winfield Scott Schley U. S. N., retired, 72. . . . Rev. Mariam Balcells, professor of mathematics at Boston College. . . . John M. Bright, inspector-general of Tennessee during the Civil War and former member of Congress, 94.

October 3.—Dr. John Bascomb, professor emeritus of political economy at Williams College and former president of the University of Wisconsin, 84.

October 4.—Joseph Bell, the eminent Scottish surgeon, from whom Conan Doyle obtained his idea of "Sherlock Holmes," 74.

October 5.—William Eleroy Curtis, the noted newspaper correspondent and author, 60. . . . Jonas G. Howard, former Congressman from Indiana, 88. . . . Bishop James A. Handy, of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, 85. . . . J. Aumonier, the English artist. . . . William H. Catlin, superintendent of highways in New York State, 70.

October 6.—Sir Charles Lawes-Witterwonge, the English sculptor, 68. . . . Col. J. C. Roberts, the well-known advocate of bimetallism, 73. . . . James W. McGarvey, president of the College of the Bible of Transylvania University, 77.

October 7.—Judge Joseph V. Quarles, of the United States Circuit Court, 67.

October 8.—Captain Louis N. Stodder, acting master of the *Monitor* during the Civil War, 74.

October 9.—Cornelius N. Bliss, Secretary of the Interior under President McKinley and for many years treasurer of the Republican National Committee, 78. . . . Archer Harmon, of New York, constructor and president of the Guayaquil & Quito Railroad. . . . General De Charette, a noted French army officer, 79. . . . Hesba Stretton, the English novelist, 70. . . . Judge George B. Adams, of the Federal District Court of Southern New York, 66.

October 11.—Henry Broadhurst, the English labor leader, 71. . . . Rev. Dr. John S. Sewall, a member of Commodore Perry's expedition to Japan, 80.

October 12.—Philip Verrill Mighels, the author and dramatist, 42. . . . Sir William John Crossley, of Manchester, England, former member of Parliament and a noted philanthropist, 67.

October 13.—John Henry Smith, a prominent counselor of the Mormon Church, 63.

October 14.—John Marshall Harlan, Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, 78. . . . Ex-Justice Maurice L. Wright, of the Supreme Court of New York, 66. . . . George F. Cunningham, who installed the engine and boilers of the *Monitor*, 86.

October 15.—Addis Albro, author of the first book on the origin of the American flag, 56.

October 16.—Bishop Augustine Van de Vyver, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Richmond, 67. . . . Watson M. Holmes, inventor (with his father) of the first practical self-binding reaper, 55.

October 17.—Abram Pease Williams, formerly Senator from California, 79. . . . Richard Kendall Munkittrick, a prominent writer of humorous verse, 59. . . . Mrs. Mary Andrews Denison, a well-known author of half a century ago, 86.

October 18.—Alfred Giraudet, a noted teacher of operatic singing and acting, 70.

October 19.—Ex-Congressman Monroe H. Kulp, of Pennsylvania, 53. . . . Alfred Binet, professor of psychology at the University of Paris.

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



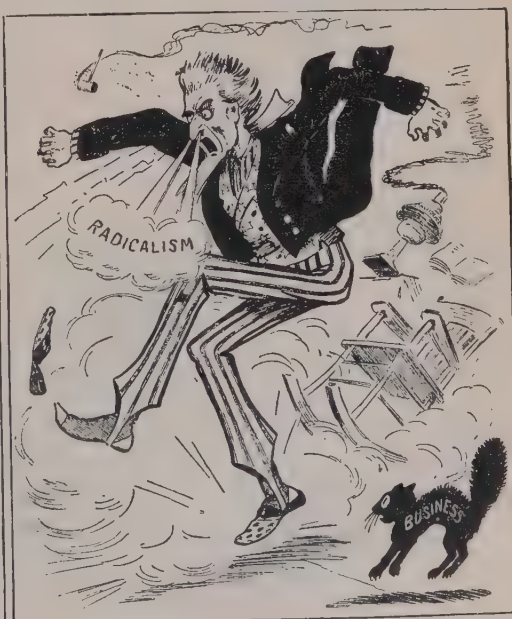
"WELL, AU REVOIR, YOUNG LADY, NO HARD FEELINGS, I ASSURE YOU"
(Apropos of Canada's rejection of reciprocity with the United States)

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)



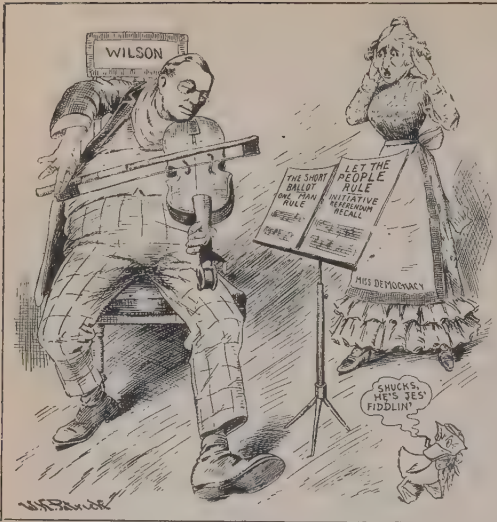
HOPEFUL SYMPTOMS

(The trusts coming to Dr. Uncle Sam for "legal" treatment)
•From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



WHAT'S THE MATTER WITH UNCLE?

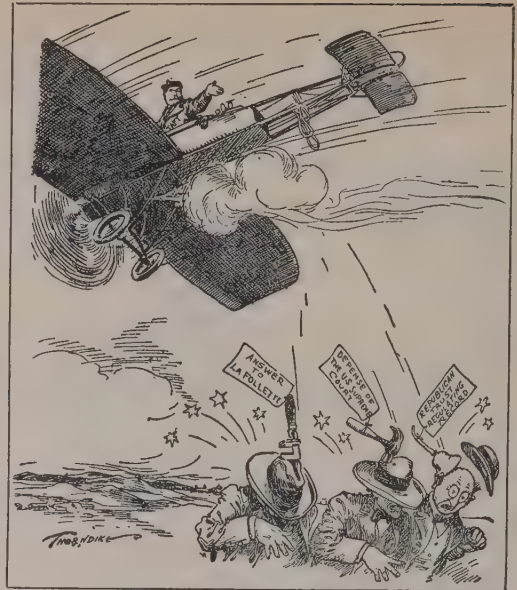
("Big business" thinks that he is on a radical rampage)
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



A QUEER MEDLEY

MISS DEMOCRACY: "Sakes alive, Woodrow, have you lost your hearing?"
From the *Record* (Fort Worth)

The first cartoon on this page shows Governor Wilson as playing some popular "progressive" tunes. Dame Democracy, repre-



INSURGENTS FIND THINGS COMING THEIR WAY
From the *American* (Baltimore)

sented the conservative "old-line" members of the party, is much distressed at the musical result. The other two cartoons deal with President Taft's long speech-making trip through the West. The cartoonists have followed the President pretty closely, commenting freely with clever pictures, according to their various views, on the impressions he made on his audiences.



THE WEST CAN'T SEE THE POINT

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



GALLANT CALIFORNIA

From the *Inter Ocean* (Chicago)

The capture of California by the forces of woman suffrage last month rejoiced the hearts of the followers of the "cause" throughout the world. Of even more popular interest, however, was the contest for the world's baseball championship between the New York "Giants" and the Philadelphia Athletics. Other topics represented in the cartoons herewith are President Taft's cross-country journey, Dr. Wiley's activities for the conservation of the people's health, and the Senatorial investigations.



THE WORLD'S CHAMPIONSHIP BASEBALL SERIES

UNCLE SAM (to the warring nations of Europe): "Say, you fellows, come over here and see a real fight"

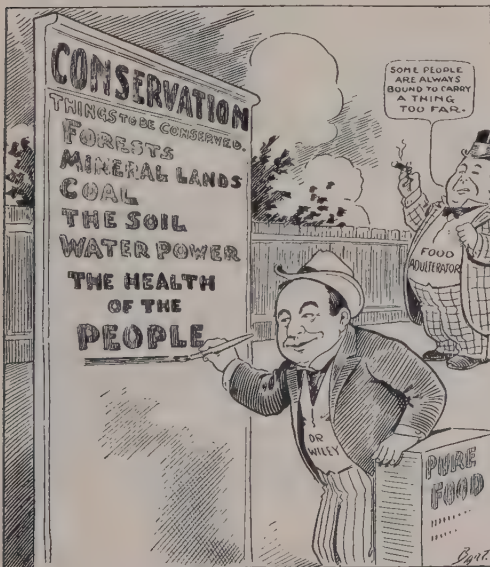
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



THE PRESIDENT IN THE WEST

"Oh, I'm very sorry William, but——"

From the *News* (Dayton)



DR. WILEY AT THE CONSERVATION CONGRESS

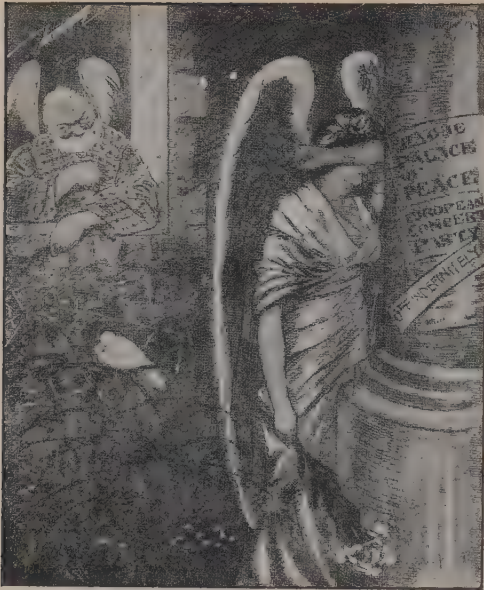
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



SENATE INVESTIGATIONS

SENATOR LORIMER TO SENATOR STEPHENSON: "Come on in the water's fine"

From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



THE DESERTED PALACE OF PEACE

ANDREW, THE LAIRD O' SKIBO (in simplified spelling):
 "Don't cri, mi deer; remember u hav always got me!"

From the *Graphic* (London)

What with wars, rebellions, and delicate international questions in foment, 'tis a sad world for the Angel of Peace. Nations persist in resorting to the brutal arbitrament of arms, and the Palace of Peace is becoming cobwebbed over with disuse.

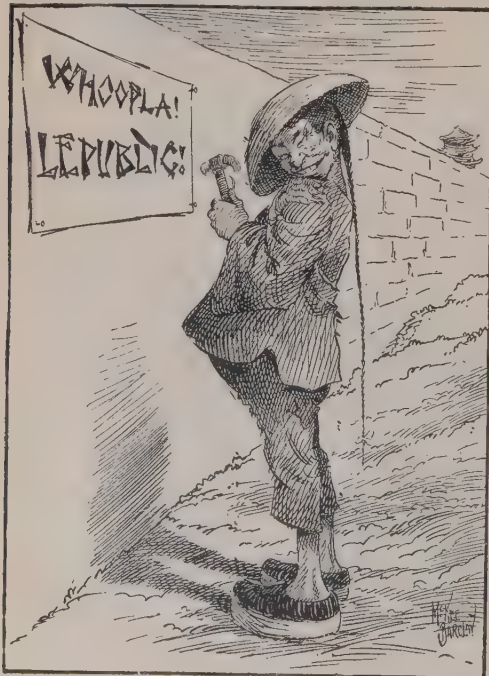


THE DILEMMA OF HAUSFRAU GERMANY

Germania (surveying the mushroom field—the increasing Socialist membership in the Reichstag): "Gracious me, if the country has to eat all these things, it certainly will have a stirring up inside"

From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)

Italy is carrying on a war with Turkey and has taken Tripoli from her enemy, while the Moroccan situation continues to be a source of international discord. Other countries are boiling with internal troubles,—Chinese rebelling against the Manchu dynasty, and Royalists and Republicans fighting in Portugal.



"ALLE SAMEE MELICAN MAN"

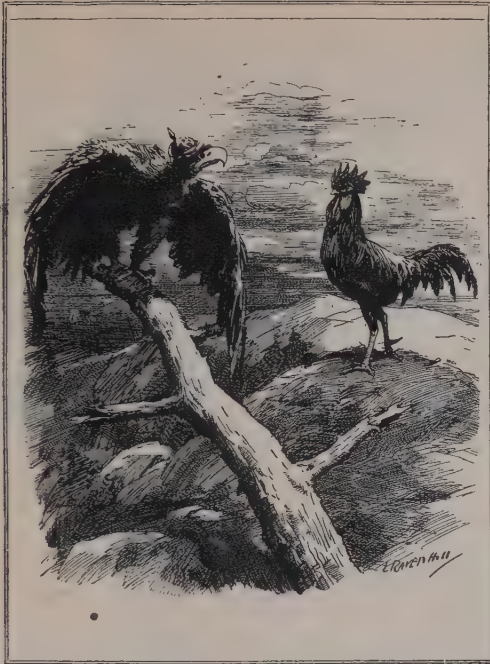
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



A REBELLION AGAINST GRAFT IN CHINA

"The Board of the Imperial Household is said to have recklessly and wantonly passed extravagant expenditures: Let the officials be handed over to the Ministry of Finance for the consideration of the proper penalties"—Imperial edict of August 6, 1911

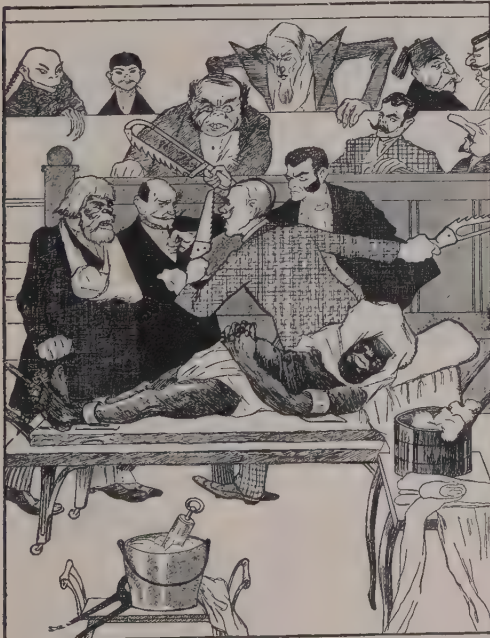
From the *National Review* (Shanghai)



A MATTER OF DIGNITY—APROPOS OF MOROCCO

GERMAN EAGLE (to French Chanticleer): "Look here, as bird to bird, if I come down a perch or two, will you promise not to crow at me?" From *Punch* (London)

This page shows a few cartoons on the Morocco question,—which has kept statesmen and cartoonists so busy of late.



WHILE THE DOCTORS DISAGREE

SULTAN MULEY HARID OF MOROCCO (on the operating table): "If my doctors keep on disagreeing long enough, I may come through safely yet." From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)



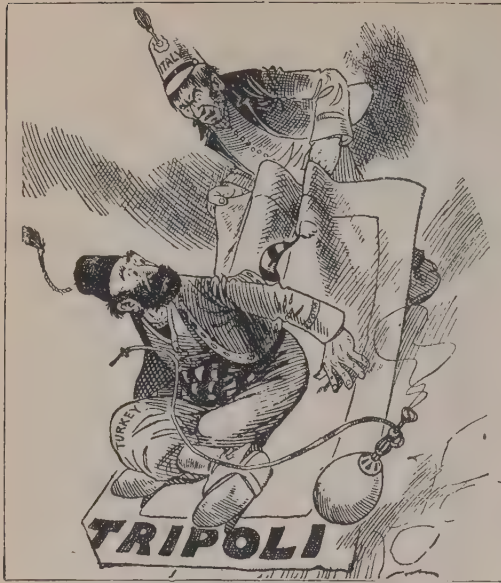
FRANCE'S LITTLE JOKE

MARIANNE (to Germany): "See here, my dear Michel, you observe the door is really open, but—your head is too thick to permit you to enter." From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)



GIVING HIM A FREE HAND

GERMANY (to France): "Yes, we are now perfectly in accord. Give me everything you have and your hands will be free." From *Fischietto* (Turin)



ITALY TO TURKEY: "Gimme da rug!"
From the *Herald* (Rochester)



WHAT TURKEY WOULD LIKE TO KNOW

THE SULTAN (to German policeman in front of the Imperial Palace in Berlin): "Greetings, my friend! Can you tell me where, in this neighborhood, the Protector of Islam resides?"

(An ironical reference to the Kaiser's self-assumed title of a few years ago)

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)



ITALY'S POLITE REQUEST REGARDING TRIPOLI

KING VICTOR EMMANUEL (to Turkey): "I simply want to milk the cow regularly, not to take her away from you."

From *Mucha* (Warsaw)



WHETTING THE APPETITE OF MARS

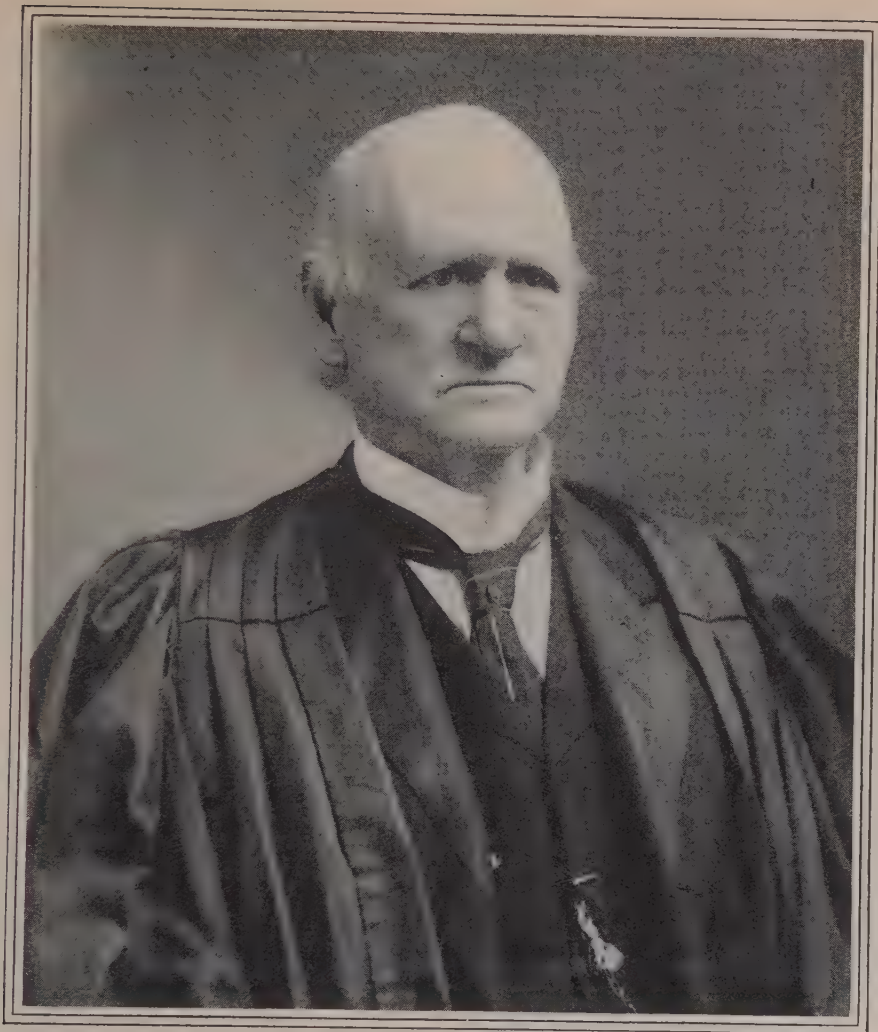
THE WAR GOD (gloating over the Tripoli soup): "Good, that means strong meat to come." From the *Amsterdammer*.



AWAITING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL MOMENT

DAME EUROPA (of The Hague Academy for young gentlemen): "I thoroughly disapprove of this, and as soon as ever it's over, I shall put a stop to it"

From *Punch* (London)



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JOHN MARSHALL HARLAN

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE HARLAN, who died at Washington on October 14 at the age of seventy-eight, after an illness of less than a week, was the oldest member of the United States Supreme Court, and his term of service had been exceeded by only two justices in the history of the court,—Chief Justice John Marshall and Associate Justice Stephen J. Field. A Kentuckian of Whig antecedents and a Colonel of the Union Army in the Civil War, Justice Harlan was appointed on the Supreme Court by President Hayes in 1877. Since his appointment, twenty Supreme Court justices have been named by successive Presidents, and, including the eight who were on the bench at the time of his appointment, Justice Harlan has been associated with twenty-eight justices out of the sixty-five who have served since the foundation of the Government. Throughout his long service on the bench, Justice Harlan was recognized as the staunch and consistent defender of popular rights. In recent years he has upheld the federal income tax, insisted upon the strict enforcement of the Anti-Trust law, and more than once declared his opposition to “judicial law-making.” He was a commanding personality in every sense, and the intensity of feeling that at times betrayed itself in his judicial deliverances in no way militated against the respect in which he was always held.

CANADA'S NEW PREMIER: HIS MESSAGE TO THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

HON. ROBERT L. BORDEN DEFINES THE NEW ADMINISTRATION'S
ATTITUDE TOWARD THE UNITED STATES

[The following statement, being the first utterance of the new Canadian Premier, in his official capacity on the subject of the Dominion's relations to the United States, was made in the course of an interview granted at Ottawa, on October 16, to Miss Agnes C. Laut, representing the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.—THE EDITOR]

In 1879 Canada placed upon her statute book a standing offer of reciprocity, which remained open to the United States for eighteen years, or until 1897, when it was repealed by the government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The United States always declined to entertain this standing offer and we never questioned their perfect and absolute right to take that course. In the meantime Canada had entered upon a policy which involved the development of her natural resources, the growth of her industries, and the preservation of her home market. Eight years ago I declared in the House of Commons that a factory in Canada was worth as much to our empire as a factory in Yorkshire. Our fiscal autonomy involving the complete control of our tariff had been finally completed and secured in 1879, and it will never be relinquished. The reciprocity compact proposed by the late government would have interfered with Canada's complete control of its own fiscal system, and in many important respects it would have constituted a reversal of the policy which this country has pursued for many years. Moreover, the interlocking of our tariff with that of any other country is undesirable from the standpoint of our fiscal autonomy. It should not be forgotten that similar arrangements made between the British colonies in South Africa have proved unsatisfactory and irritating and in the end they had to be abandoned. During the recent elections the opinion prevailed in Canada that in the interest of friendly relations it would be far better that each country should be absolutely free to frame and modify its own tariff in what it conceived to be the best interests of its people. We also consider that a tariff which must be accepted or rejected as a whole and which cannot be amended in any respect to meet the most obvious injustice, is an undemocratic and undesirable form of legislation; and we believe that experience has proved this beyond question.

Thus, the recent decision of the Canadian people was not in any respect induced by any spirit of unfriendliness to the United States.

Canada is an autonomous nation within the British Empire and is closely and inseparably united to that empire by ties of kinship, of sentiment, and of fealty, by historic association and tradition, by the character of its institutions and by the free will of its people. By the like ties of kinship, by constant social and commercial intercourse, by proximity, and by mutual respect and good will this country is closely associated with the United States. Canada's voice and influence should always be for harmony and not discord between our empire and the great republic; and I believe that she will always be a bond of abiding friendship between them. I trust that the anniversary of one hundred years of peace will be commemorated in the two countries with a deep and solemn sense of national responsibility and that each will accomplish its destiny under the splendid inspiration of enduring and increasing friendship and good will.

ROBERT LAIRD BORDEN, THE NEW PREMIER OF CANADA

WHO HEADS THE FIRST CONSERVATIVE MINISTRY IN CANADA
FOR FIFTEEN YEARS

BY AGNES C. LAUT

THREE times Canada has come to great crises in her destiny. At the first crisis, Sir John Macdonald arose and blended the warring factions of disjointed sections in one Confederation. At the second crisis, Sir Wilfrid Laurier came to the top and harmonized the hostile French and English interests in one national aim with preference for Overseas. Now the third crisis comes. Shall Canada work out her own destiny; or blend her fiscal policy with that of the United States? And R. L. Borden takes the helm to pilot Canada to a destiny of her own. What manner of man is he?

A quiet, strong, reserved, reticent man, a powerfully reticent man, unhampered by a single preëlection pledge; a man, who, when the western farmers heckled him and shouted for Reciprocity, rose quietly and with quiet, composed good-nature told them if he had to have the premiership at the cost of sacrificing Canada's national policy, he did not want the office. He has not sought office. All through his leadership of the Opposition, the office has sought him.

There is an old proverb: "The dog that barks never bites." R. L. Borden never barks; but there is a suspicion if he gets a quiet bull-dog grip on anything, he will never let go. To begin with, he comes into the premiership at within two years of the same age as Laurier when he assumed the reins of government fifteen years ago—that is, a little past his fifty-sixth birthday. Like all the other Bordenes of the Maritime Provinces, he is a descendant of the United Empire Loyalists, who were driven from the Eastern States after the Revolutionary War. If you trace his genealogy back, you will find he has common ancestors with the prominent Borden families of New York and Washington and Boston. Yet in spite of the fact that R. L. Borden is a descendant of United Empire Loyalists, he has never to my knowledge uttered one word of "anti-U. S." canting nonsense nor made use of the fact that he is a



HON. ROBERT L. BORDEN ADDRESSING THE
CANADIAN ELECTORATE
(From a photograph taken at Ottawa just before the
recent election)

United Empire Loyalist as campaign ammunition. This is typical of the man. In fifteen years of parliamentary practice, he has never once let his tongue babble, nor opened his mouth to put his foot in it. This is a pretty good record to begin with. That many of his followers in the present campaign went into the hysterics of street bullies and scattered firebrands and made big stage-barrel thunder—is not the fault of R. L. Borden. His first words on coming to office were to put a stopper on this canting nonsense. His second act was to visit his aged mother in Nova Scotia and share his victory with her.

He was born at Grand Pré in 1854 and was called to the bar at the age of twenty-four. The fact that he is a Conservative while the other Bordenes are Liberals is probably ascribable to his early law associates in Halifax. He was a junior partner in the firm that produced two other Canadian Conservative premiers,—Sir John Thompson and Sir Charles Tupper,—and at an early age left the Liberal party because of opposition to Reciprocity. It has always been a truism in Canada that Nova Scotia produces four things: fish and brains and simple living and high thinking. Nova Scotia has given more university professors, clergymen, and politicians to the world than any other part of Canada. Schurman of Cornell is a typical son of Nova Scotia. I don't know about the fish, but I do know that R. L. Borden exemplifies the three other traits of his native province. The next twenty years after being called to the bar were what the world would call negative; but they were the years when a man makes his character and makes his record. R. L. Borden amassed neither fortune nor fame. He came to political life a man of moderate means; but he had amassed the strongest of all assets in those years—a reputation for clean living and clean thinking and clean methods, for quiet, non-talking force and integrity. Here was a man who considered his client's interest before his own, his country before his party, who always kept his mouth shut and made good and played down. Also, he had another asset which does not hurt any man. Though self-made in every sense of the word as far as education goes, he was known to be a gentleman from his marrow to his finger tips,—not veneer, but clear through. In hard-drinking days, when many politicians had much ado to tack a zig-zag course down the corridors of the House of Parliament, and when, if the truth be told, Sir Wilfrid Laurier was seriously embarrassed

by some of his followers not being what he called “discreet,”—it didn't hurt R. L. Borden to be known as neither a prude nor a “bounder,” but a gentleman.

A HARMONIZER

It will be remembered in '96 the Conservative Government of Sir John Macdonald, who died just in time not to see the downfall of his party, came to almost as bad a smash as the Liberals have suffered to-day. Sir John left some able lieutenants, but none so pre-eminently able as to win acknowledgment by the others as leader. Foster had the brains as trenchant critic and financier; but Foster also had nerves and a way of imparting some ginger to his repartee. Sir John Abbott tried his hand at pulling the old cabinet together and died at the task. Sir John Thompson took hold and died of heart failure in the presence of the Queen at Windsor—some say, died of worry. Conservatives were at loggerheads in Ontario. In Quebec, Tarte, a steel lance of a man, defected to Laurier. Sir John had said, “After me the deluge,” and the deluge fell now; and Laurier came into power.

At this election, R. L. Borden came green and new to the arena of Dominion politics. There was hardly a corporal's guard of Conservatives left in the House; and those who were left distinguished themselves by never agreeing. Till 1901, the defeated cohorts dragged along under dispirited leadership; and in 1901, at a Conservative caucus, R. L. Borden was chosen leader of the Opposition; of a party which the general public thought had no chance of coming into power for twenty years. Purely as a harmonizer he was chosen—a man to lead broken ranks and purge the party and heal animosities. Men spoke doubtfully of his strength. He had never indulged in sky rockets nor banner headlines. He never spread his attacking line. He never wasted fire on insignificant issues. He never touched small personalities with a forty-rod pole. He conserved his forces, and, when the chance came, concentrated fire at one point till the enemy had to show itself defensively if not aggressively. This was very striking when the question came up whether Canada should contribute troops to the Boer War. Borden had hardly yet been acknowledged as a leader. Knowing that the French Nationalists would oppose Canada's participation in any foreign war, Laurier was keeping strangely quiet. R. L. Borden and his colleagues saw the dilemma and pressed the government to a declaration. A cab-



MR. AND MRS. BORDEN RECEIVED BY THE MAYOR OF OTTAWA

inet that had just given preference to British imports, could not dodge such an issue. The cabinet accepted the challenge and sent troops. Bourassa went out of Laurier's government; and that defection alone cost Laurier half Quebec.

Practically, the same quiet, careful tactics have given the government to Borden's party to-day. When Reciprocity was first sprung on the public I happened to be in Canada. The quiet chuckle that went round inside circles was the most comic thing imaginable. Canada was prosperous, redundantly prosperous. Any change meant a fiscal upheaval with certain loss to one section—the manufacturers, almost certain loss to another section—the transportation lines and their citics, and with, as yet, an undemonstrated profit to any section. Yet Laurier was an avowed free-trader. Borden forced the Liberal party to a repudiation or defense of the principle. The results we know.

DIFFICULTIES AHEAD

These were not the tactics of a weak leader. The fear that Borden was too negative had gradually vanished in the past ten years. Whether he will develop great, broad statesmanship in his leadership, as well as deftness, remains to be seen. It is easier to be a free-lance critic on Opposition benches than a constructive leader. The test of a man is

keener *in* power than out of it. Laurier is to be leader of the new Opposition; and with his inside knowledge of all administrative workings, one can forecast how damaging his opposition may become.

THE NEW CABINET

In the choice of his new cabinet, Borden has been careful, as is characteristic of him. The Department of Justice, concerning which there is so much suspicion in these days of aggressive interests, goes to the Hon. C. J. Doherty, a Montreal man, who has had experience both in the House and on the bench. He is a man in whom the public have implicit confidence and whose record past the meridian of life has been utterly untarnished. Quebec is placated by the inclusion of such Nationalists in the cabinet as Monk of the Public Works, and Nantel of Inland Revenue; while the Ontario Orange section must be gratified to know that Colonel Hughes, their long-time leader, goes in as Minister of Militia. Two of the best appointments to the cabinet are of W. T. White, to the Department of Finance, and Martin Burrell, to the Department of Agriculture. The Borden "landslide" is undoubtedly the result of thousands of Liberal votes, and these are recognized by the appointment of Mr. White, one of the foremost business men—and ablest—of Toronto, who was one of the eight or ten prominent

Liberals in Toronto who repudiated Reciprocity and went over to the Conservative party because of their conviction that Reciprocity endangered Canadian business interests. Martin Burrell, of British Columbia, the new Minister of Agriculture, is an Oxford graduate who began life in Canada a few years ago as a hired man on a fruit farm at Niagara. He is one of the Englishmen who have made good and worked from the ground up through every stage of successful farming. He began with book lore, but cannot be accused of being a "book farmer." Crothers, the new Minister of Labor, is a practical railway man. Hazen, the former Premier of New Brunswick, is supposed to represent maritime interests. Foster, of Sir John's old guard, who has been the trenchant critic of finance, goes into his old department of Trade and Commerce. Two of the most important departments are, of course, that of Railways and the Interior. On the administration of these very often depends the reputation of a government. Rogers of Saskatchewan, a lifelong Western man, takes over the Department of the Interior, and Cochrane, the party whip and organizer of Ontario, takes over the Railways. Cochrane has to his credit a clean record under the government of Whitney in Ontario.

It is understood that "dead dogs" are to be let "die." There are to be no saturnalia of revelations about former maladministration. A commission is to be appointed to direct the working of each department; and the Borden Cabinet will begin with a clean slate of its own. The ministers without portfolio are really a device of the Canadian Government to get the advice of big men who are too busy to give up their own affairs but whose advice is valuable on national matters.

The new Premier inherits advantages and disadvantages. Canada has been redundantly prosperous for ten years. Lean years invariably follow fat ones. If lean years come to Canada now, the burden of them will fall on Borden's Cabinet, whether deserved or undeserved.

Another rather heavy heritage: The Laurier Government has undertaken the construction of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway. At the present rate of spending, this railway is going to cost two-thirds as much as Panama. This is a pretty big bill. Laurier contracted it. Borden will have to pay it; and it remains to be seen who will shoulder the credit or the discredit of it. The Laurier Government has also undertaken the construction of dreadnoughts for the British

navy. To repudiate that contract would lose Borden the support of the Imperial section of the Canadian public. To go on with the contract will antagonize the French Nationalists. "We have destroyed one government," boasted Henri Bourassa the day after the elections, "and we shall destroy yet another unless our principles are respected." This will probably be solved by a straight money contribution.

One more point: "The anti-U. S." cry has been worked for all it is worth; and a little more. It has not been unlike the acrid declamation of an ancient damsel, "you-can't-have-me," to a widower who had no intention of asking her. Billions of dollars of American capital, hundreds of thousands of settlers, have poured into Canada. A little more foolish flaying of firebrands, a little more shrieking at false bogies, and the gentleman may be excused if he shuts his pocket book to the lady and orders his children forthwith to go no more across her borders. If Canada is wise, she will follow R. L. Borden's example and put a stopper on all this "anti-U. S." cant at once.

WHY CANADA REJECTED RECIPROCITY

It is a mistake to regard the verdict of the elections in Canada as the result of "anti-annexation" feeling, or in any way to be traced to annexation fears.

The first words of Robert Laird Borden, the new Premier of Canada, on hearing results, were: "The verdict was in no wise influenced by a spirit of unfriendliness to the great Republic. No such spirit exists."

The hubbub and noise and dust of a roaring street mob are one thing; the great, strong undercurrents of national life quite another; and anyone who has doubt as to what the Canadian rejection of Reciprocity means, has only to analyze the votes, province by province, to be convinced that "the anti-annexation" howl in Ontario had as little to do with the real results as "the anti-British" howl in Quebec. In both cases, the mob got busy and noisy and obstreperous; but in Ontario street rowdies threw stones through the windows of the *Globe* for advocating Reciprocity, while in Quebec street rowdies of an opposite stripe howled at speakers for advocating closer British relations. In Ontario, the "anti-U. S." howl seemed to sway public sentiment; in Quebec, the "anti-British"; and in both cases, away down below the noise, was the very same motive—dollars and cents, the business balance sheet,



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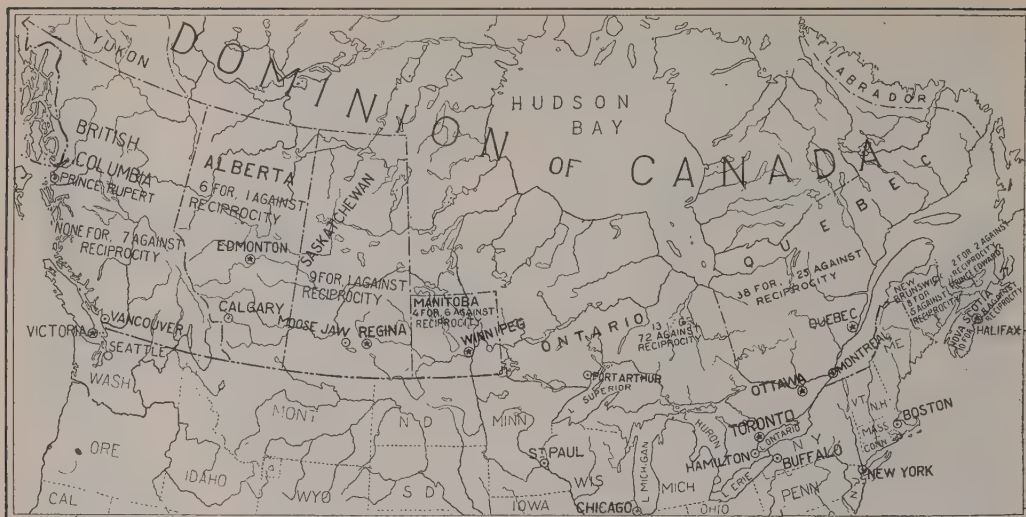
RECEPTION TENDERED THE NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL, THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT,
ON OCTOBER 13, PREMIER BORDEN ON THE LEFT

with political manipulators working the thoughtless crowd for all it was worth.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE VOTE

Take the vote, province by province! Ontario gave 13 members for Reciprocity, 72 against it; but Ontario is preëminently the manufacturing center of Canada; and so you come down to dollars and cents as the basic fact. Also, Ontario is peopled by the descendants of United Empire Loyalists—families driven from the United States after the Revolutionary War and most unjustly deprived. Come over in Quebec! Before the Boer War, Laurier could count every vote in Quebec as his own; but when the Boer War came and Canada sent troops, there were those among the French Nationalists who thought Canada was making a mistake to embroil herself in foreign wars. In the family quarrel among Quebec politicians, Bourassa, the leader of the French Nationalists, was thrown out of the Laurier Government; and from that day to this Quebec's allegiance to Laurier has been divided with Henri Bourassa. In the last election, Quebec gave 38 members for Reciprocity, which was pure testimonial to personal love for Laurier, and 25 members pledged to Bourassa's anti-imperial, pro-national propaganda. Come into the Maritime Provinces, where as much was to be gained by Reciprocity as lost, and as much to be lost as gained; and at latest returns, the vote split almost even. Sir Fred-

erick Borden, one of Laurier's cabinet ministers, was overwhelmingly defeated by a college boy, aged twenty-one; and Robert Laird Borden, the new Premier and leader of the Conservatives, retained his seat by only the slimmest of majorities. Come to Manitoba, where from a farmer's point of view everything was to be gained by Reciprocity and practically nothing lost; again the vote split almost even,—6 against, 4 for; and this slight majority against is entirely explainable by local conditions. The Provincial Government has been militantly Conservative for almost ten years, supported by all three of the big trans-continental railways. In Manitoba, Clifford Sifton was the strong man among the Liberals; and Clifford Sifton resigned from his support of the Laurier Government and stumped the country from one end to the other against Reciprocity, this not from sentimental reasons but from purely dollars-and-cents, fiscal, profit-and-loss, balance-sheet reasons. Come into Saskatchewan and Alberta, where 500,000 Americans have settled in the last ten years; and the vote was overwhelmingly in favor of Reciprocity,—9 to 1, and 6 to 1, respectively. British Columbia went solidly against Reciprocity,—7 against, none for, though one of Laurier's cabinet ministers went down in the smash. Why? Does any one need to ask? British Columbia's wealth consists in minerals and forests and fruit and fish. Is that wealth to be developed so as to build up American cities, or Canadian cities?



HOW THE PROVINCES VOTED ON RECIPROCITY

(British Columbia voted solidly against reciprocity because her wealth consists of forests and mines, and she wants the mills and smelters operated on her side of the line. Nearly all British Columbia forests are owned by the United States lumber interests. Alberta gave six votes for reciprocity and one against. In Alberta and Saskatchewan there are half a million American settlers who own millions of acres of land. All the timber from Edmonton to Port Arthur is owned by United States capital. Saskatchewan gave nine votes for reciprocity and one against. All the inland lakes of Saskatchewan are fished by American companies for the benefit of Chicago markets. Ontario gave thirteen votes for reciprocity and seventy-two against. Ontario is the manufacturing center of Canada. It was peopled by United Empire loyalists. It was the majority in Ontario that defeated reciprocity. In spite of the "anit-U. S." cry, Ontario has sold to American capital the best nickel deposits in the world. Quebec gave thirty-eight for and twenty-five against. The Conservatives won these twenty-five, representing the French Nationalists, under Bourassa, by their "Anti-England" cry. Vast wood-pulp tracts in Quebec are owned by United States capital. The thirty-five votes of the maritime provinces went twenty for and fifteen against reciprocity)

Are the shingle factories and the smelters to be built north or south of the boundary? Long as the United States keeps up her high tariff wall, British Columbia calculates, and calculates rightly, that the lumber mills and the smelters must be built on the Canadian side of the line.

THE DINGLEY TARIFF RESPONSIBLE

Not anti-annexation jingo but the high wall of the Dingley tariff is to be thanked for the defeat of Reciprocity.

If a man comes knocking and knocking on your office door seeking business for fifty years; and for fifty years, you hit him and hit him and hit him some more, and tell him to go home and mind his own business; he is apt to go home and do it hard. You need not blame him for taking your advice and following your example. "If Protection is good enough for you," says Canada to Uncle Sam, "I think I'll try if it isn't good enough for me." For fifty years, Canada has gone to Washington asking for Reciprocity; and for fifty years, Washington has smiled and told her to run away home. Canada knew very

well what such advice entailed. By trading with the United States, she could have shipped her products by a thousand short-line feeders into the big markets just across an invisible boundary. If the tariff wall were built so high along that boundary that she could not ship south, then she must ship east and west. What did that mean? It meant that she must spend a billion dollars on trans-continental railways and canals. It meant that she must send her commercial agents scouring the world for markets. It meant that she must get immigrants—get immigrants at any cost.

It was Sir John Macdonald's Government that laid the foundations for the railways and canals east and west. It was Clifford Sifton, as Minister of the Interior under Laurier, who had the world scoured for markets, and who, with Mr. Fisher and Professor Robertson, really created Canada's foreign markets. It was Clifford Sifton, who inaugurated the immigration policy that has filled the Canadian Northwest with settlers and brought the hum of prosperity where was before the silent inertia of dead dull, hard times.



THE GREEN FLAG OF THE PROPHET AND THE TYPE OF FIGHTERS WHO STAND READY TO DEFEND IT IN A HOLY WAR

TRIPOLITANIA: THE ITALIAN “WHITE MAN’S BURDEN”

BY E. ALEXANDER POWELL

SINCE the world began the arm of Italy has reached out into the Mediterranean toward Africa, its finger pointing straight at Tripoli. Phœnicians, Greeks, Romans, Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, Spaniards, and Turks followed the suggestion of that finger in their turn, but of them all only the Arab and the Turk remain. In every case a colonial empire was the mirage which beckoned to those land-hungry peoples from behind the golden haze which hangs over the African coastline, and in every case their African adventures ended in disappointment and disaster. After an interim of centuries, in which the roads and ramparts and reservoirs built along that shore by those primeval pioneers have crumbled into dust, the troop-laden transports of a regenerated Italy have followed in the wake of those Greek galleys, those Roman triremes, and those Spanish caravels. Undeterred by the recollection of her disastrous Abyssinian adventure, Italy is imbued with the idea, just as were her powerful predecessors, that her commercial and political interests demand the extension of her dominion across the Middle Sea.

Ever since the purple sails of Phœnicia first flaunted along its coasts, the history of Tripolitania has been one of invasion and conquest. In the very dawn of history the galleys of Greece dropped anchor off this shore, in the belief that it was the Garden of the Hesperides, and the vestiges of their colony of Cyrenaica lure the archæologists to-day. The Greeks retreated before Carthage's colonial expansion, and the Carthaginians gave way in turn to the conquering Romans, who, because of its three leagued cities of Oëa, Sabrata, and Leptis, named their new possession Tripolis, just as Decapolis signified the region of ten cities and Pentapolis of five. Christianity was scarcely four centuries old when the hordes of fierce-faced, skin-clad Vandals, sweeping down from their Germanic forests, overran a decadent Italy and carried fire and sword

and torture from end to end of the Mediterranean. Before another century had rolled around, however, Belisarius, the great captain of Byzantium, had broken the Vandal power forever, and the troubled land of Tripolitania once again came under the shadow of the cross. Then the wave of Arab conquest came, rolling across North Africa, until it broke upon the coasts of Spain, and supplanting the feeble Christianity of the natives of all this region with the vigorous and fanatical faith of Islam. Though Ferdinand the Catholic, not content with expelling the Moors from Spain, continued his crusade against the infidel by capturing the Tripolitan capital, the Knights of St. John, to whom he turned the city over, surrendered to the beleaguering Turks just as the sixteenth century had reached its turning-point, and Turkish it has remained, at least in name, ever since.

HOW DECATUR AND EATON MADE TRIPOLITAN- IAN HISTORY

We of the West can never be wholly indifferent to the fate and fortunes of this much-harassed land, for our flag has fluttered from its ramparts, and the bayonets of our soldiers and the cutlasses of our sailors have served to write some of the most stirring chapters of its history. So feeble and nominal did the Turkish rule become that the beginning of the last century found Tripolitania little more than a pirate stronghold, ruled by a pasha who had not only successfully defied, but had actually levied systematic tribute, upon every sea-faring nation in the

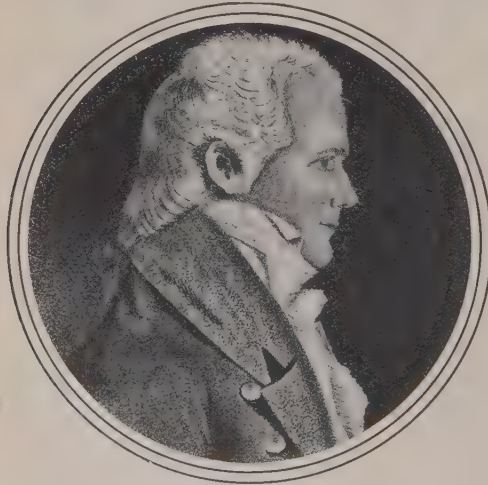
world. It was not, indeed, until the Pasha of Tripoli overstepped the bounds of our national complaisance by demanding an increase in the annual tribute of eighty-odd thousand dollars which the United States had been paying as the price of its maritime exemption that the American consul handed



CAPTAIN STEPHEN DECATUR
(Who recaptured and burned the frigate *Philadelphia*, which had fallen into Tripolitan hands)

him an ultimatum, and an American war-fleet backed it up with the menace of its guns. Standing forth in picturesque and striking relief from the tedium of the four years' war which ensued was the capture by the Tripolitans in 1803 of the frigate *Philadelphia*, which had run aground in the harbor of Tripoli, and the enslavement of her crew; her subsequent recapture and destruction by a handful of bluejackets under the intrepid Decatur; and the heroic march across the desert to Derna of Gen. William Eaton and his motley army.

Eaton's exploit, like that of Reid and the *General Armstrong* at Fayal, seems to have been all but lost in the mazes of our national history. With the object of placing upon the Tripolitan throne the reigning pasha's exiled elder brother, who had agreed to satisfy all the demands of the United States, William Eaton, soldier of fortune, frontiersman, and former American consul at Tunis, recruited at Alexandria what was thought to be a ridiculously insufficient expeditionary force for the taking of Derna, a strongly fortified coast town 600 miles due west across the Libyan desert. With a handful of adventurous Americans, some twoscore Greeks, who fought the Turk whenever opportunity offered, and a few squadrons of Arab merce-



GEN. WILLIAM EATON
(Who in 1805 took the citadel of Derna by storm and for the first and only time in history raised the Stars and Stripes over a Mediterranean fortification)



TURKISH DRILL SERGEANT

OFFICER, ITALIAN COLONIAL ARMY

TURKISH CAVALRYMAN

naries—less than 500 men in all—he set out under the blazing sun of an African spring. Though his Arabs mutinied, his food and water gave out, and his animals died from starvation and exhaustion, Eaton pushed indomitably on, covering the 600 miles of burning sand in fifty days, carrying the city by storm, and raising the American flag over its citadel—the first and only time it has

ever floated over a fortification on that side of the Atlantic.

THE LAND THAT ITALY COVETS

A territory larger than all the Atlantic States, from Florida to Maine, put together; a dry climate as hot in summer and as cold in winter as that of New Mexico; a surface



ARAB WARRIORS OF THE SAHARA OASES

(Wearing armor probably captured from the Crusaders)



THE TRIPOLITAN COAST AND THE THEATER OF THE WAR BETWEEN ITALY AND TURKEY

which varies between the aridity of the Staked Plains and the fertility of the San Joaquin Valley of California; so sparsely populated that its fanatic, turbulent, poverty-stricken population averages but two inhabitants to the square mile—that is Tripolitania. Bounded on the west by Tunisia and the French and on the east by Egypt and the English, the hinterland of the regency stretches into the Sahara as far as the Tropic of Cancer. Its 1100 miles of coastline set squarely in the middle of the North African littoral; its capital almost equidistant from the Straits, the Dardanelles, and the Suez Canal; and half the great ports of the Mediterranean not twelve hours' steam away, the strategical, political, and commercial position of Tripolitania is one of great importance.

Tripolitania, as the regency should properly be called, consists of four more or less distinctly defined divisions: Tripoli, Fezzan, Benghazi, and the Saharan oases. The districts of Tripoli and Fezzan form a Turkish vilayet under a *vali*, or governor-general; Benghazi is a separately administered province under a *mutessarif* who is directly responsible to Constantinople; while the oases are not governed at all. The district of Tripoli, which occupies the entire north-western portion of the regency, is for the most part an interminable stony tableland, riverless, waterless, and uninhabited save along the fertile coast. The stretches of yellow sand which the passing traveler sees from the deck of his ship are not, as he fondly

imagines, the edge of the Sahara, but merely sand-dunes blown in by the sea, such as may be seen elsewhere on the Mediterranean coast.

Sloping from these coastal sand-dunes up to the barren interior plateau is a zone, averaging perhaps five miles in width, of an altogether remarkable fertility, for its deep ravines, filled with considerable streams during the winter rains, continue to send down a supply of subterranean water even during the dry season. By means of countless wells, round and round which blindfolded donkeys and oxen plod ceaselessly, the water is drawn up into reservoirs and conducted thence to the fields. In this coast oasis it is harvest-time all the year round, for, notwithstanding the primitive agricultural implements of the natives, and their crude system of irrigation, the soil is amazingly productive. From April to June almonds, apricots, and corn are gathered in; in July and August come the peaches; from July to September is the vintage season, and the Tripolitan grapes vie with those of Sicily; from July to September the black tents of the nomad date and olive pickers dot the fields, though the yellow date of the coast is not to be spoken of in the same breath with the luscious, mahogany-colored fruit of the interior oases; from November to April the orange groves are ablaze with a fruit which rivals that of Jaffa; the early spring sees the shipment of those "Malta potatoes" which adorn the menus of every fashionable hostelry in Europe; while lemons are to be had for the picking at almost any season of the year.



NOMAD ARAB PLOWING WITH HIS DONKEY AND DAUGHTERS

(Province of Benghazi. The Italians will substitute steam plows and barrels of fertilizer for these primitive methods)

Southward into the Sahara from the southern borders of Tripoli stretches the province of Fezzan, its inaccessibility, its prevalent malaria, and its deadly heat having made it liked by Abdul-Hamid, of unsavory memory, as a place of exile for disgraced courtiers and overpopular officials, presumably because of the exceeding improbability of any of them ever coming back. Artesian wells and scientific farming have proved in other and equally discouraging quarters of Africa, however, that the words "desert" and "worthless" are no longer synonymous, so there is no reason to believe that the agricultural miracles which France has performed in Algeria and Tunisia on the one hand, and England in Egypt and the Sudan on the other, could not be successfully attempted by the Italians in Fezzan. Arid and inhospitable as this region appears to-day, it should be remembered that its Greek and Roman colonists boasted of it as "the granary of Europe." What has been done once may well be done again. All that this soil needs, after its centuries of impoverishment and neglect, is decent treatment, and any one who has seen those vineyards on the slopes of Capri and those farmsteads clinging to the rocky hillsides of Calabria, where soil of any kind is so precious that every inch

is tended with pathetic care, will predict a promising agricultural future for an Italian Africa.

Reaching Egyptward in the form of a mighty fist is the peninsula of Barka, the Cyrenaica of the ancients, officially known as the Mutessariflik of Benghazi, its many natural advantages of climate, soil and vegetation making it the most favored region in the regency, if not, indeed, in all North Africa. While the climate and vegetation of Tripoli and Fezzan are distinctly Saharan, the date palm being the characteristic tree, Benghazi is just as decidedly Mediterranean, its fertile, verdure-clad uplands being covered with groves of oak, cypress, olive, fig, and pine. Though well supplied with rain and, as I have already remarked, extremely fertile, the Benghazi province, once the richest of the Greek colonies, is now but scantily populated. Scattered along its coast are Benghazi, the capital, with an inextricably mixed population and one of the worst harbors in the world. Tobruk, which, because of its excellent roadstead and its proximity to the Egyptian frontier, Germany has long had a covetous eye on, and the insignificant ports of Derna and Merj, the lawless highlands of the interior being occupied by hordes of warlike and



AN ARAB OF TRIPOLI

nomadic Arabs who acknowledge no authority other than their tribal sheikhs.

South by east into the Libyan Desert straggle the Aujila and Kufra chains of oases, marking the course of the historic caravan route to Upper Egypt and presenting the aspect of a long, winding valley, extending from the Benghazi plateau almost to the banks of the Nile. To correct the popular belief that an oasis consists of a clump of palm trees around a scum-covered well, I might explain that underground reservoirs lie so near the surface of the desert that all of these sand-surrounded islands have good water in abundance, that of Jof, for example, supporting over a million date palms and several thousand people, together with their camels, flocks, and herds.

Such, in brief, bold outline, are the more salient characteristics,—climatical, agricultural, and geographical,—of the region which Italy has seized. Everything considered, it was not such a long look ahead that the Italian statesmen took when they decided to play their cards for such a stake. Though neither soil nor climate have changed since the days of Tripolitania's ancient prosperity, centuries of wretched and corrupt Turkish rule, with its system of absentee landlords and irresponsible officials, has reduced the peasantry to the same state of dull and despairing apathy in which the Egyptian fellaheen were before the English came. If Tripoli is to be redeemed, and I firmly be-

lieve that it will be, the work of regeneration cannot be done by government railways and subsidized steamship lines and regiments of brass-bound officials, but by patient, painstaking, plodding men with artesian well drilling machines and steam plows and barrels of fertilizer. It may well be, as the Italian expansionists enthusiastically declare, that Tripolitania constitutes a "New Italy" lying at the very ports of old Italy, but it is going to take many, many millions of lire and much hard work to make it worth the having.

THE TOWN OF TRIPOLI

To those unaccustomed to the sights and sounds and smells of the East, a visit to the town of Tripoli is more interesting than enjoyable. Both its harbor and its hostelry are so incredibly bad that no one ever visits them a second time if he can possibly help it. The harbor of Jaffa, in Palestine, is a trifle worse, if anything, than that of Tripoli; but the only hotel I know of which deserves to be classed with the Albergo Minerva in Tripoli, is the one next door to the native jail in Aden. Picture a cluster of square, squat, stuccoed houses, their tedious sky lines broken by the minarets of mosques and the flagstaves of foreign consulates, facing on a crescent-shaped bay. Under the sun of an African summer the white buildings of the



ARAB WOMAN OF TRIPOLI

town blaze like the whitewashed base of a railway-station stove at white heat; the stretch of yellow beach which separates the harbor from the town glows fiery as brass; while the waters of the bay look for all the world as though they had been blued in readiness for the family washing. Within the crumbling ramparts of the town is a network of dim alleys and byways, along which the yashmaked Moslem women flit like ghosts, and vaulted, trellis-roofed bazaars where traders of twoscore nationalities haggle and gesticulate and doze and pray and chatter, the while they and their wares and the passing camels smell to heaven. Scattered here and there among the shops are native bakeries, in the reeking interiors of which, after your eyes become accustomed to the darkness, you can discern patient camels plodding round and round and round,



A BERBER FROM TUNISIAN-TRIPOLITANIAN FRONTIER



A SHEIKH OF THE BROTHERHOOD OF THE SENUSSIYEH
(Engaged in the caravan trade between Wadai and Tripoli)

grinding the grain in true Eastern fashion between the upper and the nether millstones.

Follow the narrow Strada della Marina past the custom-house, where the slovenly Turkish sentry peers at you suspiciously; past the odorous fish-market, and so into the unpaved, unlighted, foul-smelling quarter of the Jews, and your path will be blocked eventually by the sole remaining relic of Tripoli's one-time greatness, the marble arch of triumph erected by the Romans in the reign of Antoninus Pius, now, half-buried in débris, its chiseled boasts of victory mutilated, and its arches ruthlessly plastered up,



A STREET IN THE JEWISH QUARTER, TRIPOLI

the shop of a dealer in dried fish. In that defaced and degraded memorial is typified the latter-day history of Tripolitania. By long odds the most interesting of the city's sights, however, are the markets, which are held upon the beach on the arrival of the trans-Saharan caravans, for they afford the foreigner fleeting but characteristic glimpses, as though on a moving-picture screen, of those strange and savage peoples—Berbers, Hausas, Tuaregs, Tubbas, and Wadaians—who are retreating farther and farther into the recesses of the continent before the white man.

All down the ages Tripoli has been the gateway through which weapons, cutlery, and cotton have entered, and slaves, ostrich feathers, and ivory have come out of inner Africa by plodding caravan. Since the sons of Ham first found their way across the wilderness of Shur, this region has been the terminus of three historic trade routes. The first of these runs due south across the desert to Lake Tchad and the great native states of Sokoto, Bagirmi, Kanem, and Wadai; the second follows a southwesterly course across the Sahara to the Great Bend of the Niger and the mysterious city of Timbuktu; while the third, going south by east, long carried British cottons and German jack-knives to the natives of Darfur and the Sudan. As the result of French and British encroachment and enterprise, however, not only has nearly all of the Tripolitanian hinterland been absorbed by one or the other of these powers,

but, what is of far more commercial importance, they have succeeded in diverting the large and important caravan trade, which for centuries has found its way to the sea through Tripoli, to their own ports on the Nile, the Senegal, and the Niger, leaving to *Tripolitania Italiana* nothing but its possibilities as an agricultural land.

CRISPI'S AMBITION REALIZED

The statesmen who planned, and the soldiers and sailors who executed the seizure of Tripolitania, were obeying a voice from the grave. Though the overwhelming disaster to the Italians at Adowa in 1898, when their army of invasion was wiped out by Menelik's Abyssinian tribesmen, caused the political downfall of Crispi, the greatest Italian of his time, his dream of Italian colonial expansion, like John Brown's soul, went marching on. With the vision of a prophet that great statesman saw that the day was not far distant when the steady increase in Italy's population and production would compel her to acquire a colonial market overseas. Crispi lies mouldering in his grave, but the Italian Government, in pursuance of the policy which he inaugurated, has been surreptitiously at work in Tripolitania.



AN ARAB OF THE HINTERLAND, BENGHAZI



AN ARAB SCHOOL, TRIPOLI

ITALY'S "INTERESTS" IN TRIPOLITANIA

Never has that forerunner to annexation known as "pacific penetration" been more subtly or more systematically conducted. Even the Pope has lent the government's

policy of African aggrandizement his sanction, for is not the Moslem the hereditary foe of the Church, and does not the cross follow close in the wake of civilization? Italian convents and monasteries dot the Tripolitanian littoral, while cowed and



TUAREG CARAVAN IN THE KUFRA OASES

(The balloonlike hoods conceal their women. The Tuaregs, who are distinguished by the half veils over their faces, belong to the Brotherhood of the Senussiye)



AN ARAB WOMAN AND CHILD OF THE KUFRA OASES, TRIPOLITANIA

sandaled missionaries from the innumerable Italian orders have carried the Gospel, and the propaganda of an Italian protectorate, to the oppressed and poverty-stricken peasantry of the far interior. Under the guise of scientists Italian political and commercial agents have been quietly investigating the problems and possibilities of the regency from end to end, while the powerful Banco di Roma, an institution backed with the funds of the Holy See, through its branches in Tripoli and Benghazi, has been systematically buying up arable farm lands from the impoverished peasantry at a few lire the hectare, which quadrupled in value with the landing of the first Italian soldier.

Though there are probably not two thousand native-born Italians in the whole of Tripolitania, the numerous Jews, in whose hands is practically the entire trade of the country have been offered inducements of one kind and another to become Italian subjects, Italy thus laying a foundation for her claims to predominating interests in that region. On the pretext that the Turkish authorities had tampered with the foreign mail-bags, Italy demanded and obtained permission to establish her own post-offices at the principal ports, so that for some years

past the anomalous spectacle has been presented, just as in other portions of the Ottoman Empire, of letters from a Turkish colony being franked with surcharged Italian stamps. The most ingenious stroke, however, was the establishment of numerous Italian schools—and very good schools they are—where the young idea, whether Arab, Maltese, or Jew, has been taught to shoot—along Italian lines.

THE REAL MEANING OF ANNEXATION

To those really conversant with the situation, Italy's pretexts that the activities of her subjects resident in Tripolitania had been interfered with, and their lives and interests seriously endangered, sound somewhat hollow. To tell the truth, Italians have had a freer rein in the regency—and, incidentally, have caused more trouble—than any other people. Italy's real reasons for the seizure of Tripolitania have been two, and only two: first, she wanted it, and second, she could get it.

Now that she at last has Tripolitania in her grasp, however, her task is but begun. Annexation, especially in Africa, does not end with a naval demonstration, a landing

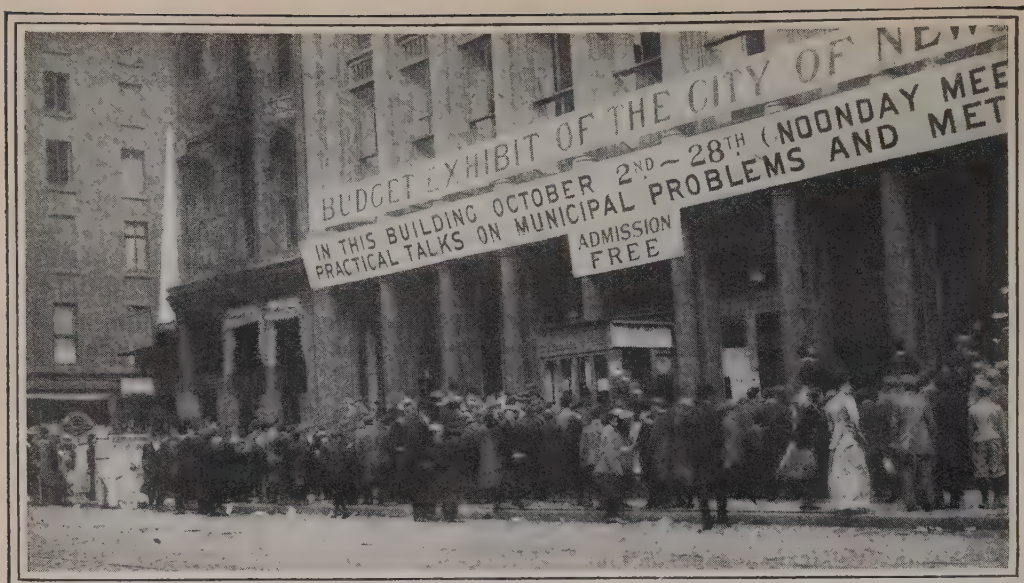
party, a staff with a descending and an ascending flag, and the flash and thunder of a national salute. Unless the fanatic Moslem element, of which this region has long been a stronghold, can be induced to accept an Italian occupation—and this I very strongly doubt—the life of an Italian soldier who ventures out of range of the warships will not be worth an hour's purchase. Hordes of fanatical, desert-bred Arabs, inured to hardship, deadly sun, scanty food and dearth of water; mounted on swift camels and as familiar with the trackless desert as the woodsman is with the forest in which he works; ablaze with a religion which assures them that the one sure way to paradise is to die in battle with the unbelievers—can harass the Italian army of occupation for years to come by a guerrilla warfare. It took France, with all the resources of a trained colonial army at her command, forty years

to pacify the Arabs of Algeria; it took England sixteen years to conquer the Sudan; in German Africa, annexed more than a quarter of a century, the inland tribes are not pacified yet; our own costly and weary experience in the Philippines needs no recapitulation.

Italy has put her hand to the plow, however, and started it upon a long and arduous and very costly furrow, the end of which no man can see. That the taking of Tripolitania will prove, in the end, for the country's own best good, and that it will promote the opening up of the dark places to civilization, if not to Christianity—for the Moslem does not change his faith—few will doubt. It is the means which is contemptible, not the end. But, when all is said and done, I cannot but feel that the cross of the house of Savoy portends more good to Africa in general, and to Tripolitania in particular, than would ever the star and crescent.



THE YASHMAKED MOSLEM WOMEN FLIT LIKE GHOSTS THROUGH THE STREETS



CROWDS WAITING TO BE ADMITTED TO THE OPENING AND FIRST NOONDAY MEETING
HELD IN CONNECTION WITH THE BUDGET EXHIBIT, ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY

THE NEW YORK BUDGET EXHIBIT

BY HERBERT T. WADE

BY means of a so-called "Budget Exhibit" the citizens of New York City for the past two years have had full opportunity to study its municipal administration in both its economic and practical aspects. Statements of the financial condition of the city, with special reference to its expenditures and receipts for the ensuing year, were reduced to the simplest possible form and tabulated or otherwise made available for ready inspection. Each department or bureau of the city government was requested to present in summary an estimate of the appropriations it desired, with a statement of its work during the year, and to make other exhibits illustrative either of its routine work or recent improvements in plant, equipment, or practice. Thus the exhibition was relieved of an exclusively statistical character, and, in addition to tables, charts, and diagrams, there were photographs, specimens, and even apparatus and machinery to show the citizen what was being done with the money he pays in taxes. Even when judged merely as a popular exhibition, the collection assembled last month in an unoccupied dry-goods warehouse on Broadway could not have failed to interest the most casual observer of metropolitan life and conditions.

THE PROCESS OF CITY BUDGET-MAKING

Yet this Budget Exhibit must not be considered merely as a means of profitable amusement for the citizens of New York, but as an important and serious step in municipal progress, for it is around the annual budget of the city that all discussion of efficiency and economy of the municipal administration must center. Any citizen has a right to be present at the meeting of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which passes on the requests of the several departments of the city government for appropriations for the following year, and to criticise the conduct of the particular department, and argue for or against increased appropriations. The Board of Estimate, in public meeting, must consider the necessary expense of carrying on the city administration, and make suitable appropriations therefor, at the same time arranging on the basis of valuation and assessment for a suitable tax rate that, with the city's other sources of income, will provide the means for meeting such appropriations. This function of budget-making is given to the Board of Estimate under the present charter of the city, and the proposal to take it from the board and give

it to the Mayor, or a committee appointed by the Mayor, was one of the disputed points of the new charter, which the State Legislature at its recent session failed to enact.

Under the present law the various city departments, boards, and offices submit annually to the Board of Estimate their estimates of the amounts of money that will be required to transact the public business within their jurisdiction during the ensuing year. The board upon these estimates prepares the annual budget, cutting down excessive appropriations and eliminating those it believes to be unnecessary. As the various appropriations can be used only for the purposes specifically named, it follows that the greater the care with which the budget is constructed, the greater will be the efficiency and economy in the conduct of the city's business in the ensuing year.

In no department of municipal activity has there been greater progress than in the construction of municipal budgets, and in New York the development that has taken place in the last five years has been little

short of extraordinary. Where once there was hardly an opportunity for any citizen or association of citizens to inform themselves on the work or estimates of the different departments, and where the grouping of items in large classes afforded opportunity for waste, inefficiency, or corruption, now all estimates must be arranged in detail according to an adopted scheme, so that a scientific and businesslike budget can be constructed in which every element may be explained, not only to the administration, but to any one interested. That this might be done with the widest publicity the Budget Exhibits were arranged. Perhaps the first suggestion for these interesting exhibitions came from a private agency, the Bureau of Municipal Research, an organization supported by public-spirited citizens to study the problems of city administration with a view to its improvement.

The bureau in 1908 and 1909, at the time the budget was being considered, exhibited in a modest way for the inspection of the citizens at large striking diagrams and other



SERIES OF CUBES DISPLAYED AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE BUDGET EXHIBIT, TO SHOW THE TOTAL EXPENSES OF THE SEVERAL CITY DEPARTMENTS, AND THEIR RELATION TO THE BUDGET AS A WHOLE

graphic illustrations as commentaries on the work of certain city departments and their estimates for the following year. While the attitude of these unofficial investigators was essentially critical, yet the lesson was taken to heart by the city administration and straightway led to a closer analysis of the estimates and their proper arrangement under the more careful scrutiny of the department heads concerned. Going even further, last year the city government determined on the fullest possible measure of publicity, and accordingly arranged for the Budget Exhibit, of which that of the present year is the successor and development.

Not only were the estimates and record of the current year's work tabulated and displayed in detail, in a building rented for this purpose, but various physical objects connected with the work of the different departments were shown. In other words, the exhibition was a graphic record of municipal progress and economy. Its function was largely educational, aiming to inform and arouse the interest of the citizen, bringing to him a simple but forceful lesson in municipal economies, for underlying all shortcomings of American municipal government are ignorance and indifference of the taxpayers.

"PUBLICITY" FEATURES

That there should no longer be any excuse for ignorance on the part of the citizens of New York the Budgetary Publicity Committee of the Board of Estimate, consisting of George E. McAneny, President of the Borough of Manhattan, William A. Prendergast, Comptroller, and John Purroy Mitchel, President of the Board of Aldermen, inaugurated this year in addition to the annual exhibition, the interest of which was proved by an attendance of 800,000 in the month it was open, a special budget news service which aimed at the maximum amount of publicity for all the various items entering into the budget. Not only to the newspapers but to the various civic organizations of Greater New York, were sent bulletins in the form of brief memoranda containing the estimates of the heads of city departments, bureaus, and offices as to the amount of appropriations needed for the following year, together with a statement of the expenses of these departments for the current year, the increases and decreases being specifically noted.

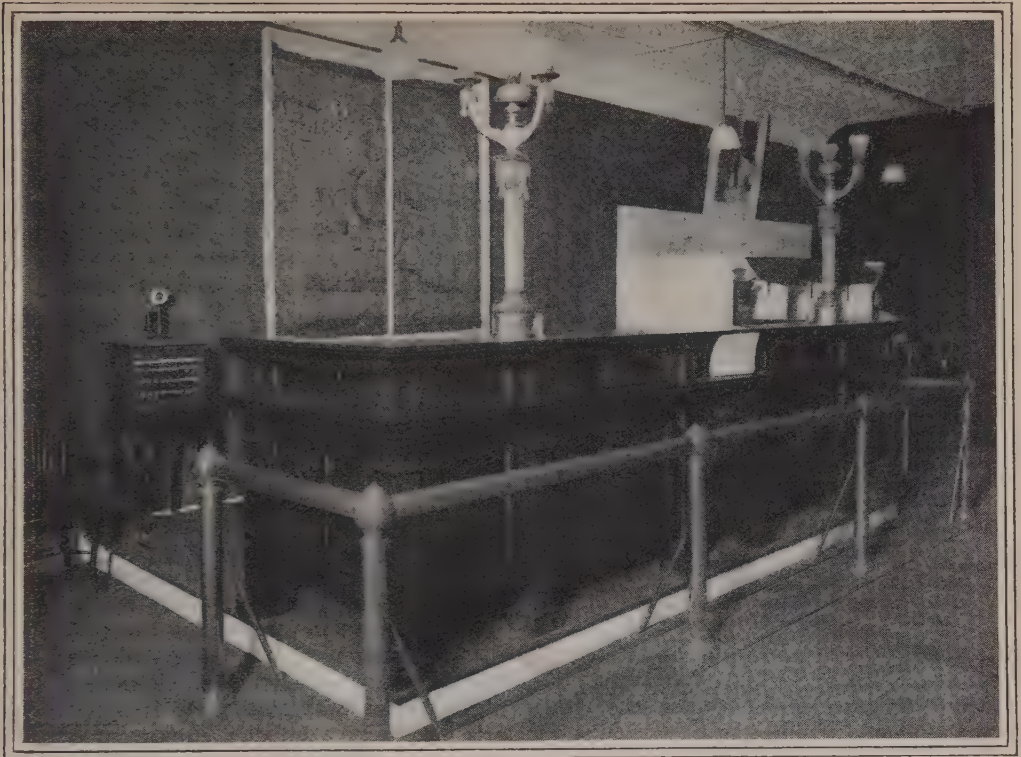
In the case of the various organizations to which these bulletins were addressed it was

requested that they should be discussed at their meetings, and any constructive criticism that might result be transmitted to the Budget Committee of the Board of Estimate. Furthermore, reference was made to the detailed estimates of the department heads printed in the *City Record* and to the exhibits of statistics and other matters at the Budget Exhibit itself.

One of the features of this exhibit was the series of noonday meetings at which addresses were made by the heads of the departments, and opportunity was given any one to question the official and ask the reason for his increased demands in the way of appropriations. All this, of course, was really preliminary to the final action on the total budget by the Board of Estimate and the Board of Aldermen, and, as has been said, the adoption of the budget virtually fixes the tax rate for the ensuing year.

Whatever the faults of the past, the budget of the City of New York no longer is made in the dark, and not only is there opportunity for criticism, but useful advice is welcomed. In previous years it is true that there has been criticism of various items by interested citizens, but in most cases specific information has not been forthcoming, and but rarely has constructive criticism been made. There have been, of course, numerous demands from philanthropic citizens for various humanitarian objects and new or improved institutions, yet in few instances have they shown how their projects could be adjusted to the general scheme of municipal economy. On the other hand the Bureau of Municipal Research, with the facts derived from minute investigation at its command, has often been very helpful to the makers of the budget.

The whole subject of the budget is one of no small degree of complication. The total appropriations for 1911 involved some \$174,000,000 and there were 2242 separate appropriations in the budget. Yet there have been great practical advances during the last four or five years and it is an interesting commentary on New York municipal administration that the budget increases of the past two years have been only in those parts that are outside of the control of the Board of Estimate. For example, the board must provide for interest on municipal bonds, deficiencies in tax levies of previous years, suits decided against the city, and similar items. There have been increases in the amounts appropriated for education, sanitation, and charities in response to popular demand and



A MODEL POLICE STATION WITH LIEUTENANT'S DESK. A CARD ATTACHED TO TO THE DESK STATED IT COST \$544.00, AND WOULD BE USED BY THE DETECTIVE BUREAU AT POLICE HEADQUARTERS

without opposition, due to the increase in population and added activities. In other fields, however, the ratio of increase does not exceed the ratio of increase in population. This is the result of careful analysis and such publicity as is made possible by the Budget Exhibit. In previous years there was no care manifested and increases went on, being assumed as necessary evils to which the taxpayer must submit. With a carefully analyzed and scientifically constructed budget the opportunity for waste and inefficiency is reduced to a minimum.

Thus an innovation introduced by Mayor McClellan in 1909 serves to do away with the abuse of raising salaries or making irregular appointments from unexpended balances of salary appropriations, a practice once common in New York no matter what political organization was in power. To-day each salary appropriation in the budget (and in 1911 salaries and wages aggregated over \$78,000,000) is accompanied by a controlling schedule with a detailed statement of the number of employees and the salary of each included in the appropriation. Should there

be a smaller number of employees than specified so that an unexpected balance remains, this cannot be used to increase salaries at the end of the year which will then be binding for the next year, but it must be returned to the city treasury unless a majority of votes in the Board of Estimate formally consents to such increase of salaries or transfer of appropriation. Such action by the Board of Estimate is permitted by the charter and follows very closely in effect the Federal statute for U. S. Government employees in the District of Columbia adopted in 1882. The application of this principle to the City of New York for three years past has been the means of saving vast amounts, and in 1911 it was estimated that about \$2,500,000 would be returned to the city treasury as an unexpended balance of the salaries and wage account, which under the practice former administrations, whether organization or reform, would have been lost to the city by reason of wage increases, the necessities for which were not always apparent. The present plan insures the absolute control of the salary appropriation, or over one-third



"BRENTWOOD," A VETERAN HORSE OF THE NEW YORK FIRE DEPARTMENT. HE HAS RESPONDED TO 5,427 ALARMS IN SEVENTEEN YEARS OF SERVICE

(Within the coming five years, the city will have disposed of practically all of its fire horses, making way for improved auto-motor apparatus)

of the budget, by the Board of Estimate composed of officials of the highest responsibility.

One of the first lessons taught the visitor to the Budget Exhibit was the organization of the city government and the underlying principles of its finances. The former is of course provided by the charter, as is also the general method of administering the latter. The budget appropriations deal only with current expenditures, covering, roughly speaking, maintenance and interest accounts. Permanent improvements possessing value for the future or earning power are paid for by the issue of bonds or so-called corporate stock, which is a permanent liability, but only the sinking-fund installment and the interest figure in the city's current expenses.

DRY FACTS GRAPHICALLY PRESENTED

To illustrate such principles as the foregoing, the visitor to the old dry-goods warehouse on Broadway was immediately confronted with a series of graphic charts and models. A series of gilded cubes was selected to show the total estimated expenses of any given department and their relation to the total budget. Where the estimates for 1912 exceeded those of 1911 the gilded cubes were augmented by a number of purple cubes, prepared to the same scale, and indicating the increase. This graphic scheme of representation by cubical diagrams was followed in the separate exhibits and a specimen chart is reproduced herewith to show how effective this presentation was.

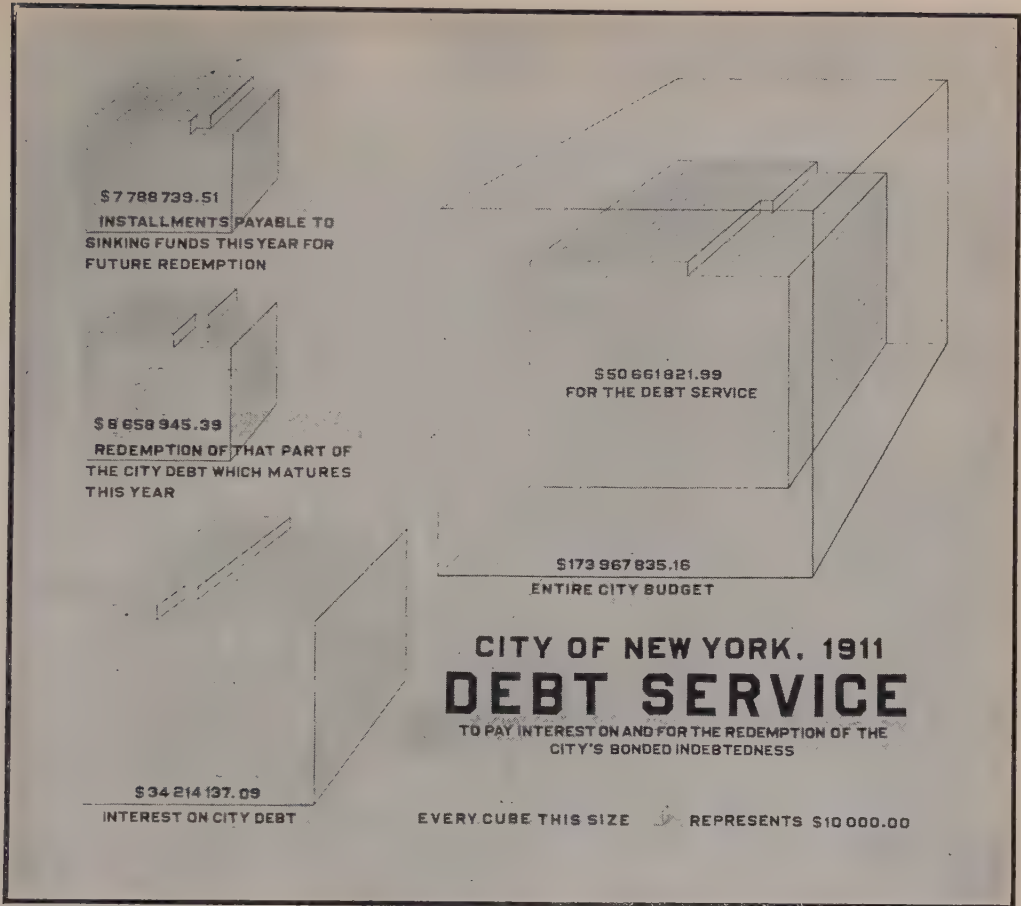
Everywhere the charts and diagrams hung on the walls of alcoves gave the organization and accountability of the various departments, together with full statistics as to the work accomplished under the various appropriations, and the reasons for increased appropriations. The exhibit, in short, was a record of all municipal activity and as such merited full study, but there were certain features of more compelling interest which emphasized the lessons of the charts.

POLICE AND FIRE DEPARTMENT EXHIBIT

Thus the police problem is an important one in New York and for the maintenance of the force the commissioner asked increased appropriations. In support of these increases as shown in the tables there was exhibited a large map of greater New York, on which were represented the precinct boundaries and station houses, the fixed posts for the patrolmen, the method of regulating traffic, and the total number of police available to protect the entire city. This, according to the commissioner, was inadequate and the map seemed to bear out his contention. Another feature was an exhibit of the various articles making up the equipment of the patrolman which must be purchased by him from his salary. This was shown in support of the demand of the members for increased salaries, it being stated that the cost of the



A POLICE CELL OF A NEW STATION HOUSE SHOWN AT THE BUDGET EXHIBIT



TYPICAL DIAGRAM USED AT THE EXHIBIT, SHOWING CUBICAL METHOD OF REPRESENTING MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURES

necessary articles of equipment for a first-year patrolman as shown, aggregated \$121.93 out of an \$800 salary. Another feature of the police exhibit was a model lieutenant's desk, fully equipped as in a station house, with the necessary records and a lieutenant in charge, the same being conducted as a regular station by the police detail at the exhibition. There was also an exhibition of the new Bureau of Criminal Identification, where finger prints and Bertillon measurements were shown and explained, while a police telephone call-box illustrated the method of communicating with the station by a man on post. A model cell from one of the new station houses was exhibited and several of the police dogs in their kennels were shown with placards giving their records. The work of the Harbor Police was illustrated by a patrol launch, and the Bureau of Supplies exhibited many articles with the cost price of each plainly stated.

Similar features characterized the exhibit

of the Fire Department. There was a map with engine houses and districts indicated, while a fire-alarm system was operated and the method of sending an alarm from a street box explained to the visitors. The gradual extinction of the fire horse was marked by the famous veteran "Brentwood," in a stall near by a new motor truck and gasoline engine, whose maintenance cost and efficiency have now made horse-drawn apparatus among the mechanical appliances whose days are numbered. To show that this was not merely an innovation of questionable advantage the maintenance cost of motor apparatus as compared with horses was worked out and tabulated. This was especially noteworthy as the Fire Commissioners' estimates were considerably in excess of last year, and were in part chargeable to this account. The new Bureau of Fire Prevention was represented, and a fireproof building and various fire-protective devices were on view.

INCREASED ESTIMATES FOR THE HEALTH DEPARTMENT

In all the various exhibits extensive use was made of photographs and a municipal album of such collected together would have formed a striking contribution to modern municipal engineering. In the case of the Health Department the photographs along with the charts were of especial interest, as the estimates of this department for the year were 52 per cent. in excess of those for 1911. These figures contemplated important developments in such fields as child hygiene, milk supply and inspection, and other branches of sanitation involving increased staffs. To show the methods by which such work would be carried on there were many photographs of doctors, nurses, and inspectors at work, and striking charts showing the decrease in disease and mortality through such preventive sanitary measures as were already in force on more or less extensive scales.

For such increases a number of public-spirited ladies and gentlemen were very insistent in the interest of philanthropy, and accordingly it becomes a broad question whether such allowance should be made in the interest of humanity at the expense of the tax rate, with a corresponding increase in rents and other expenses.

STANDARDIZING EXPENDITURES

Throughout the various exhibits it was noticed that increases in estimates were the general order, and these for the most part involved either increases in the number of officials or their salaries. Thus whether a police commissioner's salary should be raised to \$15,000 from \$7500, or that of a first-year patrolman from \$800 to \$1000, or whether there should be 1000 more police, or an increased number of sanitary inspectors or physicians visiting the sick babies of the poor, or many other items of similar nature, and for the most part eminently desirable, are debatable questions. The officials concerned naturally favor such increases and present arguments in their favor, usually sound and plausible. But the people pay the bill, and it is for them and their duly-elected representatives on the Board of Estimate and in the Board of Aldermen to say what can be afforded and what makes for the greatest advantage.

The critical observer at the Budget Exhibit naturally looks beyond the mere spec-

tacular for evidences of actual progress in municipal administration. One striking feature is the exhibition for the first time of a summary of classified expenditures. These, in 1911, amounted to \$158,625,529.91, as compared with \$153,775,145.53 in 1910. By carrying in accounts of the same nature the expenses of the different departments a comparison of the efficiency and economy of each, and the setting of suitable standards, is made possible. For example, in the purchase and maintenance of automobiles there might be a wide difference in the expenses of various departments, which sound economy demands should be made uniform.

In pursuance of such tendency toward standardization of accounts it is, of course, desirable to look for standardization in supplies and specifications. Great progress was made this year by the Commission of Standardization appointed by the Mayor in 1910. As the city spends annually for supplies approximately \$22,000,000, through over 100 different purchasing agents, the need of determining and maintaining proper standards is quite obvious. Thus there should not be any difference either in price or quality in the supplies furnished for Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, from the price or quality of similar articles furnished to the hospitals under the direction of the Department of Health or other public charitable institutions. Accordingly proper standards and methods of purchase for such articles of food as meat, butter, etc., must be adopted and rigorously maintained. Beginning January 1, 1912, all fresh meat purchased by the city will be bought under the new standard specifications, which from the few months' experience at Bellevue will, it is believed, result in an annual saving to the city of over \$40,000. Similar economies in the purchase of butter and forage were also shown, and it was stated that standard uniform specifications had been actually applied to \$5,430,000 worth of the annual supply purchases of the city. The Commission of Standardization exhibited charts and sample cards which illustrated the method of classifying and analyzing the information upon which the standard specifications were based. For example, a calorimeter for testing coal figured in the exhibit, and when it was explained that the coal purchased by the city amounted in value to \$2,500,000 and that it was now bought on a heat unit basis, the value of the method was apparent.

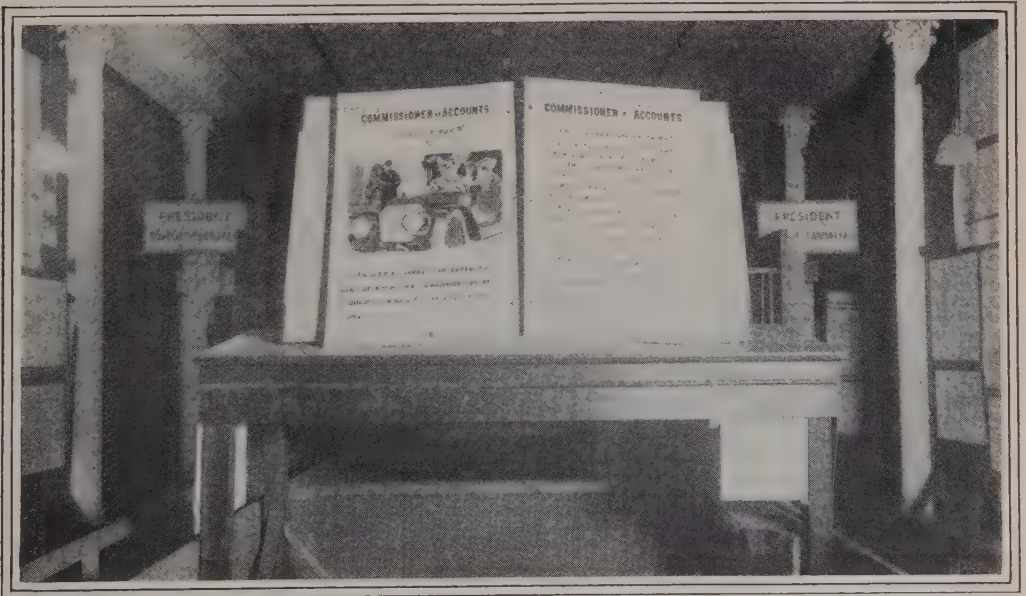
In connection with the high cost of living, particularly of food supplies, popular inter-

est at the exhibit was directed in no small degree toward the space which was devoted to the Mayor's Bureau of Weights and Measures. Recent methods of inspection and legislation have made it possible to proceed more effectively against dishonest dealers and the fraudulent weights and measures confiscated and exhibited afforded ample proof of this activity. The educational feature of this particular exhibit was informing housekeepers of the nature of these frauds, the methods of avoiding them, and the general precautions to be observed, in addition, of course, to the nature of the assistance that the commission was in a position to furnish.

The visitor could wander through the various aisles and alcoves occupied by the various city departments, all with their story of growth and activity, and all with their demand for increased appropriations. Yet not all. For recent reorganization and reforms in the *City Record* office, where the city printing is done, and from which the city stationery is issued, make it possible to get along with \$55,300 less than in 1911, while the Law Department was content with \$2450 less. In short, the visitor could not fail to be impressed with these pictures of municipal activity and the interest of the army of city officials. Bridges, Docks, Ferries, Education, Parks, Museums, Courts, Charities, and the one hundred and one manifestations of municipal work in the various

boroughs, all were represented in striking fashion with the record of accomplishment and the plans for continuance and extension.

Much of the exhibit, in fact, possessed great permanent value, and the city has under consideration the founding of a permanent municipal museum where would be displayed objects of historical interest connected with the material growth of the city, together with the statistical record of its progress and economy in permanent yet simple form. The Budget Exhibit is, however, more than local in its interest. The same idea is to be followed in a number of large American cities where civic interest is being stimulated and the education of the citizens in municipal matters is desired. It has commended itself to the practical municipal worker as a means of arousing interest and pride in his efforts; for it enables his work to be judged by results rather than in a spirit of mere partisanship or from the view of the theoretical idealist. Thus in New York during the past month taxpayers' organizations were examining the items of the department estimates and wondering whether they meant a \$200,000,000 budget. The evidence was before them in detail, the decision was with them and their representatives. Should not the taxpayers of other American cities have a similar opportunity to study and supervise their expenditures and taxes?



A SEARCHLIGHT FOCUSED ON THE OPEN LEDGER DIRECTED ATTENTION TO THE WORK OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF ACCOUNTS

THE NEW ERA OF THE RANCH LANDS

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER

DRIVING along the streets of San Antonio—"San Antone," the Texans call it—you pass at intervals luxurious homes shining with considerable newness.

"Whose?" you ask.

"Rich rancher—bought land for a trifle and sold out to farmers—worth half a million."

Repeated is the story until one gains the impression that the small farmer has taken the Southwest. To a degree he has—or is on the way to do so. His immigration came naturally. When the homesteads of Kansas and Nebraska had been exhausted and the Oklahoma rush had over-run the fertile Indian reservations, the only outlet remaining was the ranch country of the farther Southwest.

There were millions of acres used only for grazing, yet with possibilities of agriculture. Up in the middle States were thousands of farmers seeking a place where they could obtain for investment more acres than they could buy at home. The railroads saw benefit to themselves by colonizing the unbroken reaches of the plains. Shrewd organizers were ready for a venture. Out of this came the greatest land movement known in the history of the West, not excepting the west-

ward trek of settlers soon after the close of the Civil War.

It was thoroughly planned. Tons of "literature" were scattered through the agricultural States of the Mississippi valley. Special rates were made for home-seekers' excursions. Twice a month "home-seekers' day" saw the trains run in four or five sections, each filled from the front seat of the "smoker" to the rear berth of the last Pullman. Land companies were equipped with their own special cars, with dozens of automobiles at the destination and the pick of the wide-awake, hustling agents who could paint the prospects in most glowing colors.

THE LAND BOOMER'S METHOD

Their method was simple. All the Southwest was a cattleman's empire. Ranches of from 10,000 to 100,000 acres, coming from old land grants or from the State or handed down from early history, originally costing as low as 50 cents an acre, were purchased on contract for from \$4 to \$7 an acre. Then, dividing the land into portions according to the water supply, quality of soil, etc., they fixed a price on each. Sometimes this was as low as \$6 or \$8, and might be \$17 or \$20 an



A COLONY FROM CHEROKEE, KANSAS, ARRIVING AT CALHAN, COLORADO, FOUR YEARS AGO

(This land was "homesteaded" and is now worth \$20 an acre)



FARMERS' AUTOMOBILES AT BUCKLIN, KANSAS, BOUGHT WITH WHEAT MONEY

acre. On the excursion days whole train loads—not car loads—of land buyers were taken out to the ranches. They were given little opportunity for investigation except through the agents of the company. The land was sold on contract. Theoretically half was to be paid down and from three to five years' time given on the remainder. Actually many sales were made with payment of \$1 an acre down and ten years' time on the remainder, the amount being due in annual instalments at 6 per cent. interest. The notes were rediscounted and payments made with the proceeds on the original purchase of the ranch.

Naturally this meant speculation. In fact, a great proportion of the home-seekers were buying in expectation of reaping in a few years a handsome profit from the investment. They went home and waited for the rise in values. Others bought with the intention of making new homes and the loaded freight trains that wended into the Southwest were loaded with household goods of the immigrants. These families began improvements and established themselves to grow up with the country.

Only a small part of the great area was thus settled. The ranchers usually retained their headquarters and a liberal amount of

land, and, with the free range and the opportunity for leasing, managed to maintain their diminished herds. The day of the cattle baron passed; the kings of the range were no more. What had been a stockman's paradise was dotted with farms. Windmills by the hundred whirled where the cowboy had for decades seen only blue sky and mesquite grass.

WHEN THE BOOM ENDED

This movement began about 1905, and its intensity grew with each of the succeeding four years. Land values increased until from \$12 to \$20 an acre, depending on distance from a town and quality of land, was asked for unimproved farms and from \$25 to \$40 for those to which building and sod-breaking had come. The speculative buyers were holding for yet greater profits, frequently adding to their investment. The new Interstate Commission rulings and new laws limited the land agents' activity somewhat by abolishing passes, making it more expensive to conduct the selling campaign in the North. In the early spring of 1910, came a sudden crisis in the land movement of the West—for something of the same speculative tendency had been going on



A FIFTEEN MONTHS' OLD LOCUST TREE IN NEW MEXICO

throughout the entire territory between the Missouri River and the Rocky Mountains, from Texas to North Dakota. Loan companies discovered that they had too much invested in farm mortgages; banks found themselves overloaded with real-estate securities. Both classes decided it was time to stop.

One land company's directors held a hurried session. The president was deputed to call on the local bank.

"No, we cannot renew your note," said the financier.

"But you have often loaned me more than this on my personal note for my business."

"Yes, and I will do so now—but not a cent for land speculation."

For a time it was embarrassing and it brought disappointment to many speculative enterprises. In the end, however, it was to the advantage of the real home-seeker. It put a stop to the boom; it brought land values to a stable figure; it made the sales on a basis of worth and not on one of prospective profit.

WHAT THE REAL FARMER FOUND

The real settler who went to the ranch country found two classes of land. Down near the Gulf coast was plenty of rainfall, deep rich soil, semi-tropical climate, and an agriculture that included rice, cotton, and

garden truck of every sort, with intensive cultivation necessary.

Those who went to the vast area known as the Panhandle and to Southwest Oklahoma, found quite another sort of country. The Panhandle and South Plains section, the old cattle kingdom, contains some 36,000 square miles. This is greater than the combined areas of the States of New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Delaware. It is greater than the two States of Vermont and West Virginia; or of Maine and Delaware; or of Maryland, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Delaware, and three Districts of Columbia; or of Indiana and Delaware. New York is only 12,000 square miles larger; Ohio 2000; Pennsylvania 9000, and Virginia 6000. Imagine the big State to be on a hinge at the north line of the Panhandle; turn it over and Brownsville, on the coast at the southernmost point of Texas, would be in the middle of North Dakota! Here the streams form no wide valleys. The plains decline gently toward draws tributary to craggy breaks, whence their waters flow tumultuously through canyons to the larger streams below. In these narrow valleys large trees grow. There also is a perennial flow in some of the streams higher up. The soil, though light, is arable to the very edges of the canyons or bluffs which confine the streams. Consequently there is little land which may not be planted. On the uplands are practically no trees.

MODERN IDEAS OF FARMING

In the settlement of this new Country was none of the pioneering that marked the de-



HOME OF A NORWEGIAN COLONIST IN TEXAS



POTATO HARVEST IN EARLY MAY, NORTHERN LOUISIANA

velopment of the older States. Modern implements, farm telephones, gasoline tractors for plowing the broad acres, and new ideas in agriculture were at hand. To be sure, many found they could not follow the system to which they had been accustomed in Iowa or Wisconsin. For one thing the rainfall was limited. Indian corn and wheat were not sure crops. They must raise Kaffir corn, millet, and other drought-resisting plants. One or two dry years came and these taxed the skill and patience of the hopeful settlers. Those who came with little money had a hard time. Those who were better equipped, adapted themselves to conditions and have already won.

BUSINESS BASIS OF TO-DAY

The readjustment has been on a business basis. The farmer who now goes to the Southwest goes to stay. The speculative era is over. Those who bought in anticipation

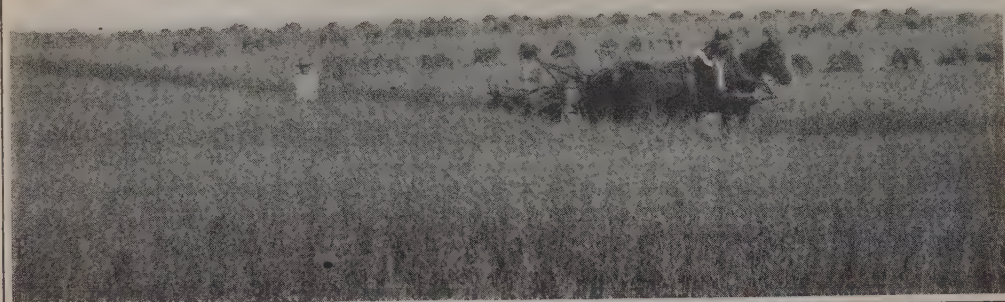
of making large profits have for the most part been disappointed. The land companies made money—provided they cleaned up their schemes soon enough. The speculators who bought at from \$15 to \$20 an acre three years ago find their land worth practically the same as then. Some of it in the semi-arid region is worth less than at that time, especially when several miles from a railroad. Hundreds made only one or a few payments and then gave up the contract. They had at no time any intention of making a home on their possession.

So the southwest ranch country has come to a sounder economic condition. The men going there are real settlers and take with them sufficient means to improve their farms and sustain their families during any season of discouragement.

"I tried to buy some land in Illinois for my boys," said one as he explained his investment. "Nothing could be bought for less than \$150 an acre. I figured that by



A VINEYARD IN FINNEY COUNTY, KANSAS



A DRY-FARMING WHEAT-
(Twenty bushels to the acre with

going to the farther West I could get them ten acres for one and finally I sold my own farm and went with them."

That is the settler of to-day and it means a more substantial development and the accomplishment of a permanent prosperity—for the uses of all the plains country are certainly to be discovered.

DIVERSIFIED FARMING WINS

The shrewd settler soon found that diversified agriculture was necessary and he added cattle and dairy products to his crop-raising, with the result that he found himself established with a regular income. Cattle may pasture the year round—that was why the ranchmen prospered, but it requires for the season about twenty-five acres for each head of stock. "Free range" has its limits in these days of barbed wire fences and restrictions of territory, and the settler is in no sense a cattle baron. Indeed, there is to-day little chance for that class. Only by actually owning or leasing the land can one be sure of range, and at the present prices of real estate it does not pay to carry too much land for grazing at twenty-five acres per head.

The farmer who stayed has worked out his own salvation. Under a delightful climate and with most healthful conditions, he finds his new home attractive in many ways.

Comfortable little dwellings dot the plains. Garden spots surround them, while churches and school-houses, though at what the East would call magnificent distances, have been established. Twenty miles is to the West-

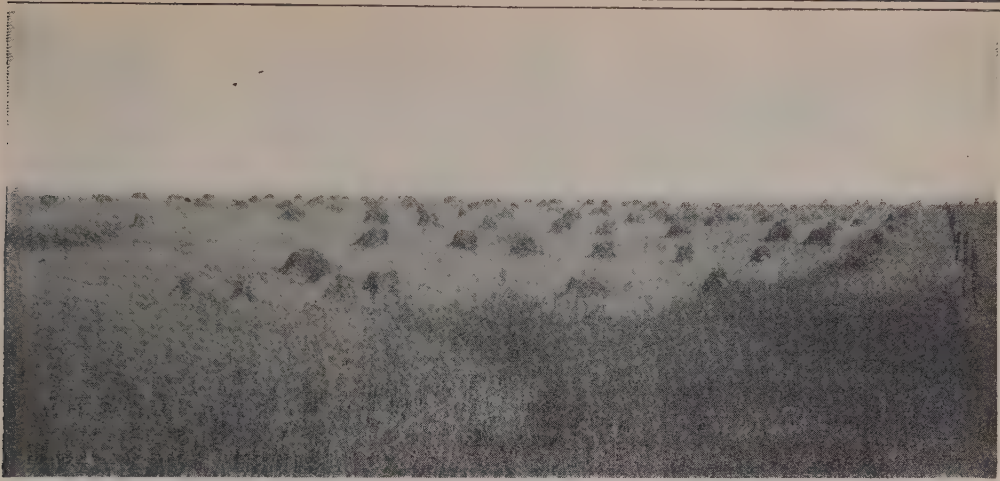
erner no more than five to the resident of New England, and the whole-souled comradeship that invests a new community brings all into close communion of friendship.

DRY FARMING AS A RESOURCE

While in the Gulf coast country there is more need of drainage than of more moisture, the high plains labor under the disadvantage of a small annual rainfall. How to overcome this has been one of the problems of the farmer. The Government experiment stations and the State agricultural colleges have given it much careful investigation. As a result they have found means for conserving the rainfall so that crops get a greater benefit than when nature was allowed to take its course and every shower ran off into the canyons and draws.

Dry farming, in its last analysis, means only such tillage as will hold the moisture and lessen the rate of evaporation. This has been brought to a practical stage and many farmers have harvested good crops from a minimum amount of moisture. To be sure, it has been necessary to have some rain—dry farming will not produce showers, though general cultivation may in time, according to some authorities, increase the annual average.

Down in New Mexico, which is a part of the southwest range, it is frankly admitted that dry farming has not proved successful generally. But with a rainfall of from 12 to 20 inches a year, intelligent cultivation can produce crops profitably, and this is being



FIELD SCENE IN COLORADO
an average rainfall of four inches

done by those who have gone to the new territory. Hundreds of farms are showing progress and their owners are happy and prosperous with a fair promise for their future.

LOOKING TO IRRIGATION

Underneath all the Southwest is an inexhaustible supply of water. Down near the Gulf it is only a few feet from the surface. Farther north it requires a well from eighty

to one hundred feet deep to reach it. Here and there it crops out in artesian flow, but for the most part it must be lifted to the surface. This the settlers are doing and they find it a hopeful outlook.

The windmill, even in a land of almost constant breezes, is too slow for the modern irrigator. He installs the ever-ready gasoline engine in a little power house and sets it to work on its twenty-four-a-day mission. A well and engine in the mid-plains region can



IRRIGATION DITCH ON THE McDONALD FARMS, HEREFORD, TEXAS

(This ditch is from a well 213 feet deep, on a farm in the Panhandle of Texas. The well has a flow of 1175 gallon-per minute and the water is pumped with a 40-horse power engine, using distillate as fuel, at a total cost of three and one-half cents per gallon, the fuel consumption being 5 gallons per hour, the water costing 96 cents per acre foot. There is a lift of fifty feet. The water is being used on 160 acres, fifty acres of which is in sugar beets, that were in fine stand when seen some weeks ago. Another well on the adjoining quarter section is serving a similar purpose. It is estimated that enough water can be developed by pumping in the Panhandle to irrigate half a million acres)



AN EXAMPLE OF WINDMILL IRRIGATION

(Fourteen months from Buffalo grass, and now a well-kept garden of flowers, vegetables, and decorative plants)

All this indicates that the new generation is studying conditions with earnestness and its success is evidence that there is a future for the Southwest.

TOWNS AND NEW RAILROADS

Along with the development of the farming section came the organization of new towns and the plains are dotted with thriving villages, very new, but very busy. Amarillo, which is one of the high plains centers, had five years ago only 500 population; to-day it has over 10,000, with all the conveniences

be put in place for about \$1000. One such outfit is lifting a thousand gallons a minute and irrigating a field of garden truck and alfalfa that makes the owner a handsome income. Where the land slopes properly, it is possible to irrigate eighty acres from one such well and experts look to this method as a solution of many of the problems of successful farming in the Southwest. Occasionally is a stream that can also be utilized for the purpose, and some of the low lands produce good crops of alfalfa, so there is plenty of possibility for income.

An experienced irrigator from the Rocky Ford irrigated district of eastern Colorado says that there is as great promise in this section as he saw in the Rocky Ford country when he settled there and he will apply the same methods to the utilization of its natural resources.

of city life. Dozens of smaller places give to the people convenient trading stations.

Those who have built up the towns are for the most part young men, filled with enthusiasm and enterprise and with their trade reaching out many miles on every side. Social conditions of these towns are as good as those of the eastern village, for those who form their population are men and women from good families and with attributes of culture. College graduates are numerous. You enter a bank or store and the chances are that you will find one of the proprietors a college man. The Southwest has proved a great attraction for the alumni of schools of higher learning. They believe that they will in the end be the financial leaders of a rich country and are building on that foundation. The day when a top hat and a dress suit meant ribald jeering and perhaps a few



THE GARDEN CITY PROJECT



BROOM CORN MARKETING AT LIBERAL, KANSAS

revolver shots as a mark of disapproval, has departed—as has the typical cowboy who cherished a particular dislike for all ceremony.

To accommodate the growing population new railroads have been pushed in every direction. The Santa Fé and the Rock Island have built new lines across the prairies and many smaller systems have their feeders, threading the entire plains country until its people are brought close to the advantage of communication with the world.

RANCH LIFE OF TO-DAY

The ranch life of to-day in the Southwest is more businesslike and less picturesque

than of old. "Once I helped load steers whose horns were so long that the animals could not enter the door of a freight car without hitting either side," said a cattleman. "Now the cattle are bred up until they are sleek and well marked as any that you find in Missouri or Iowa. The herds are handled with care and their owners seek a constantly rising quality. Some of the best cattle that go to the eastern market come from the ranches of the Southwest. Probably as many head are owned to-day as ten years ago, but they are in smaller herds. Texas has over 7,000,000 cattle exclusive of milch cows."

Then there is another feature. The auto-



A VIEW OF TENTH STREET, ALAMAGORDA, NEW MEXICO, FROM ROOF OF RAILROAD DEPOT



A WHEAT FIELD IN 1905

(Now Sixteenth Street, Oklahoma City. Several \$10,000 residences. Cheapest on the street, \$3000)

mobile is nowhere put to more practical use than on the long smooth roads of the plains. A cattleman bought a \$3500 roadster in San Antonio the other day. "I need it to visit my shipping stations," said he.

"How far are they apart?"

"I ship from five stations and they are about eighteen miles apart."

But he is one of few of the great land own-

ers remaining and their ranches will soon be broken up into smaller holdings.

ECONOMIC AND COMMERCIAL CHANGES

The effect of the transformation of the ranch lands upon the economic and commercial life of the Southwest has been direct and positive. When there were only a few hun-



A MODERN WATER HOLE



COWBOYS OF THE SHORT GRASS COUNTRY

dred cowboys and cattle raisers inhabiting the vast area, the business interests took them little in account. To-day there are wholesale houses and manufactories in Oklahoma City, Wichita, Fort Worth, and San Antonio to which comes the business of this new territory. The commercial clubs take "booster trips" to visit the towns that have sprung up on the plains and seek their business.

The banks of the reserve centers find generous accounts in the new institutions of the prairie towns, and in planning their financial course must take them into account. The railway traffic is bearing out the predictions of the managers at the beginning, when they foresaw that with the influx of population

would come a return in increased products and growing freight transactions in both directions.

It has made a new business world and one that is likely to increase in potency as a factor in the West's life. Production is not confined to one staple as before, but in addition to beef comes every resource of the farm and garden and orchard. It means not only a larger volume, but a variety of products that must inevitably build up the West's jobbing centers. Hundreds of commercial salesmen are traveling where formerly the cowboy rode alone.

The census of 1910 showed that while Iowa lost 3 per cent. of its population in the past decade, while Kansas gained only



BRANDING CALVES ON A WESTERN RANCH



A RANCH HOUSE IN THE MIDST OF COTTONWOOD TREES, TEXAS

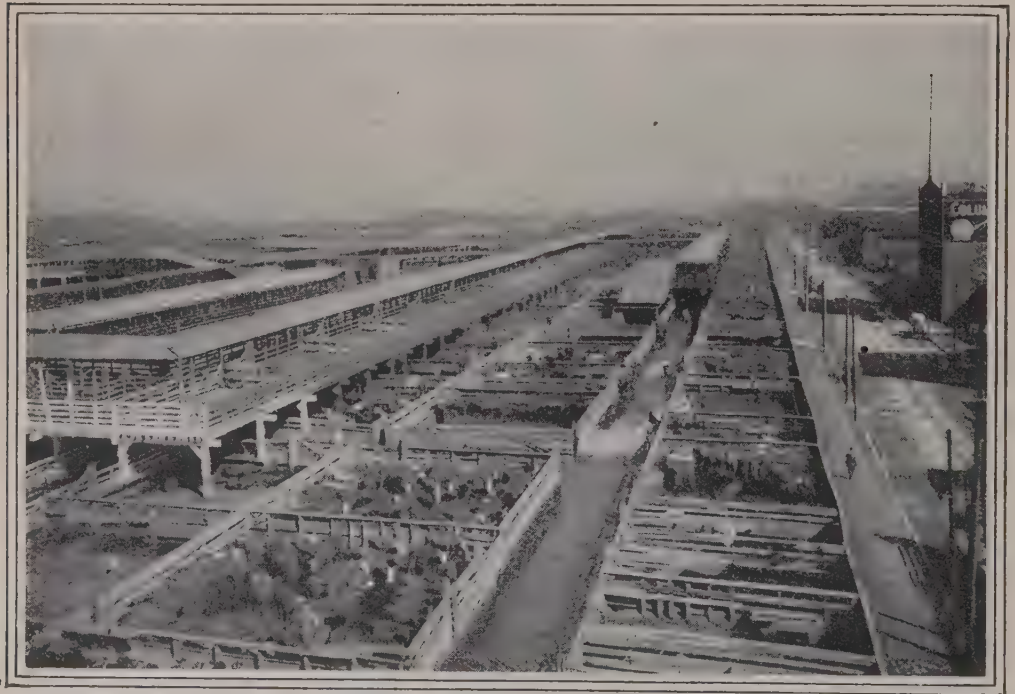
15 per cent., Nebraska 11.8, Wisconsin 12.8 and Missouri 6 per cent., Oklahoma's gain was 109.7 per cent. and Texas' 27.8 per cent.

The people who have gone into the Southwest have high ambitions. Opportunities

are abundant and they are making the most of them. A steady stream of immigration continues into the new lands, sometimes favoring the Gulf coast, sometimes out to the plains, sometimes to the irrigated sections of New Mexico. But it is all of a high class of settlers, men with capital and determination. In Western parlance, they intend to "make good,"—and will do it.

Forty years ago a cattle trail was marked from the Texas plains to the end of the first railroad into central Kansas. Over its weary course three million cattle traveled in as many years.

The other day, down in Oklahoma, arrangements were made to lay out and improve an automobile road over the length of the old cattle trail. Thus the old order passeth and the West of to-day takes on new ways.



THE KANSAS CITY STOCK YARDS



From *International Marine Engineering*

THE "TOILER," A VESSEL OF 2700 TONS, EQUIPPED WITH INTERNAL-COMBUSTION ENGINES,
WHICH CROSSED THE ATLANTIC LAST JULY

(Note the absence of funnels)

THE ADVENT OF THE MOTOR SHIP

BY CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

NO event since the introduction of the compound engine has aroused so much interest in the maritime world as the advent of the motor ship. While it might be going too far to predict that the oil motor would drive the steam engine off the sea, there is ample warrant for asserting that the new engine is destined soon to become a formidable rival of the old. Professor Stanfield recently assured the students at Leith Nautical College that "we are on the eve of an important revolution in ship propulsion." A good many eminent naval architects and marine engineers have said the same thing in effect and at greater length.

But as faith without works is dead, so prophecy without performance is not convincing. The best way to estimate the potential value of the oil motor as a marine engine is to take note of what the ship builders are doing with it. To the landlubber the results of such an investigation are nothing less than astounding.

OIL ENGINES FOR SUBMARINES AND SAILING SHIPS

Dr. Rudolf Diesel, of Munich, Bavaria, the inventor of the oil engine that has made the motor ship possible, recently assured the Institution of Naval Architects of Great Britain that he knew of 250 vessels fitted, or being fitted, with his engines. Even though it is backed by unimpeachable authority this statement sounds perfectly incredible until it is explained that most of the vessels are of

the kind that taxpayers are expected to pay for but are not expected to know anything about.

In other words, the most important development of the marine oil engine until recently has been for submarines. France took the lead in this field seven or eight years ago. Now, all the important powers of Europe, except England, use oil engines in submarines. Thanks to Dr. Diesel, these craft are no longer uncertain weapons of defense, but have now become useful in attack, owing to their increased power and range of action.

In France, too, the sailing ship with oil engines as auxiliaries for use in calms and contrary winds is being developed. Each year some sixty sailing vessels leave Europe for Pacific ports, the voyages averaging 155 days. On so long a voyage a sailing ship is liable to many delays. The French bark *Quevilly*, of 3271 tons gross register, was fitted with twin screws and oil engines capable of driving her six to seven knots an hour. A hundred tons of fuel was sufficient for a run of four thousand miles. So successful was the *Quevilly* that her owners are now building an auxiliary ship of 6100 tons gross with engines of 900 horse power.

INTRODUCED ON COMMERCIAL MARINE

But submarines and sailing ships with auxiliary power might be built indefinitely without creating a ripple on the current of events. Not until the oil engine made its

appearance as the exclusive motive power of commercial craft did naval architects, marine engineers, and shipowners begin to give it their very particular attention. The advent of the oil engine in the commercial marine was very gradual at first. It seems that some small coasters and fishing vessels were first equipped. They achieved such unheard-of economies that progress became swifter. The first commercial motor craft in Germany, for example, was the small coaster *Frerichs* and the fishing boat *Ewersand*. The former, carrying one ton of oil in a tank under the cabin, was able to make a voyage of 240 miles on this one ton at a speed of 9.5 knots an hour. The *Ewersand*, with an engine of 90 horse power, made a cruise of five weeks with three tons of oil as compared with the twenty tons of coal that would have been required under steam. The use of the oil engine increased the length of the boat available for cargo by thirteen feet.

Knowledge of these things getting abroad, the Anglo-Saxon Petroleum Company ventured to build the first motor ship of really substantial size, the oil carrier *Vulcanus*. This vessel, 196 feet long, 37 feet beam, and 1179 tons gross register, was fitted with Diesel oil engines of 550 horse power, which proved to be able to drive her at a speed of 8.4 knots an hour on a consumption of 2.5 tons of oil in twenty-four hours. The most interesting point about the *Vulcanus* was that her operating expenses were \$19.50 a day less than those of a steamship of the same capacity.

The performance of the *Vulcanus* was the match which fired an exceedingly interesting train of events. Interest in the new marine motor became acute and widespread. Orders came in upon the naval architects thick and fast for larger and still larger motor ships, the owners of the *Vulcanus* taking the lead by laying down a motor ship twice the size of the successful pioneer.

CROSSING THE ATLANTIC

One of the earliest of the large craft to be put into commission after the *Vulcanus* was the *Toiler*, built to operate on the Canadian lakes and canals. The *Toiler* is 248 feet long, 42.5 feet beam, and 19 feet molded depth. On account of the speed limit imposed by canal navigation the oil engines were only 400 horse power, which is sufficient to maintain a speed of six miles an hour when fully loaded. The *Toiler* looks very much like an ore carrier on the Great Lakes, except that she has no funnel. The pilot house, bridge and

part of the crew's accommodations are perched on the bow, while the engine room and the rest of the crew's quarters appear at the farther end of a long expanse of hatches at the extreme stern. On her trial trip the *Toiler* carried 2,650 tons of coal to Calais at a speed of 5.9 knots (6.75 miles) an hour. The return light was made at a speed of 8.2 knots (9.5 miles) an hour. The fuel consumption for the round trip was 6.5 tons of oil, or an average of 1.7 tons a day, worth \$15.60, as compared with 9 tons of coal worth \$28, which a steamship of the same capacity would have required daily. To this saving of \$12.40 a day on fuel must be added \$5 a day saved on stokers' wages, besides the cost of their food, and an increase in revenue earning space of 120 tons on weight saved by the absence of boilers and coal bunkers. It had been intended to employ the *Toiler* in the coasting trade on the other side to enable the builders to tune up the new engines; but everything worked so well that the new motor ship was sent across the Atlantic early in July, 1911.

MOTOR SHIPS NOW BUILDING

While the Diesel engine was proving its worth European owners, taking it on faith, were busy everywhere building more motor ships. The *Romagna*, an Italian coaster with twin-screw oil engines of 800 horse power, was launched at Ancona, on the Adriatic, early in the spring. A freighter of 3200 tons to be propelled by oil engines is being built in England for Lord Furness, while the first passenger-carrying motor ship, a craft of 5000 tons with oil engines capable of developing a speed of twelve knots an hour, with small oil engines to run all the numerous auxiliaries on shipboard, such as pumps, ventilators, lights, and steering engines, for the Russian East Asiatic Steamship Company, is also on the stocks in England. The Dutch East India Company is building a motor ship to have oil engines of 1500 horse power in Holland. The largest of all the mercantile motor ships yet undertaken is a freighter of 9000 tons which is to have oil engines of 3000 horse power, capable of driving her at a speed of twelve and a half knots, which the Hamburg American Line is to put in commission in a few months. It is also known, despite official secretiveness, that the German warship *Goeben*, now nearing completion, is to have her central shaft driven by oil engines of 12,000 horse power. France is building a novel war craft, a sort of com-

bination of torpedo boat destroyer and submarine, with oil engines of 4500 horse power. Not to make the list of motor ships now building too long, it may be said that thirty licenses to build Diesel marine engines of large size have been issued in the last six months.

By no means all information about motor ships is accessible to the public, for a great deal of experimenting with oil engines has been carried on in secret, both under government auspices and by private firms. Developments have been so important, and the fact became so evident that Diesel engines would soon be used extensively for ship propulsion, that Lloyd's some months ago appointed a committee to investigate the new motor. The results of the investigation must have been satisfactory, judging from a paper which J. T. Milton, Chief Surveyor for Lloyd's, presented at a meeting of the Institution of Naval Architects last April, in which he predicted that the ensuing twelve months would be momentous in the history of marine engineering. Mr. Milton expressed the belief that it was even then possible to build marine oil engines of thirty thousand horse power.

DR. DIESEL'S OIL ENGINE

To the patriotic American, who is convinced that nothing really worth while ever originates outside the boundaries of his native land, and who probably never heard of Dr. Diesel or his oil engine, the sudden appearance of the motor ship must be astonishing. Perhaps it may surprise him still more to be told that the Diesel engine is far from being new or untried. As long ago as 1901 the Franklin Institute, of Philadelphia, awarded the Elliott Cresson gold medal to Herr Rudolf Diesel in recognition of the great service he had rendered mankind by his invention. Even then the Diesel engine had been in general use in Europe for seven years. Since then Diesel engines to the value of millions of pounds sterling have been built for use on land.

An account of the origin of the oil engine fails entirely to measure up to the popular idea of what the history of a great invention should be. There was no starving inventor burning the midnight oil in a garret, no miraculous discovery of an elusive secret, nothing romantic, nothing spectacular. Dr. Diesel, the inventor, is a hard-headed, sober-minded, thoroughly educated German, who knew exactly what he wanted to do before he undertook to do it. The task he set himself was the production of an internal-combustion motor which, by avoiding the troubles of

other motors of that class, would be thoroughly reliable, suitable for universal use, and economical, first by using a cheap fuel obtainable anywhere; and, second, by utilizing the greatest possible percentage of the heat value in the fuel.

The next step was to work out this problem theoretically in a thoroughly scientific manner; the next was to make drawings for an engine in accordance with the theoretical study; the last was to build an engine according to the drawings. Under the circumstances, the experimental engine did precisely what it was expected to do. The first oil engine ever built marked an advance of 50 per cent. in fuel economy over the best existing internal-combustion motor. All that was left to do was to adapt the plan to constantly increasing sizes until oil engines of six thousand horse power are now built and in operation, and to change the type from a four-cycle to a two-cycle and provide a method of reversing to adapt it to marine use.

ADVANTAGES OF PETROLEUM

It should be explained that while the Diesel engine belongs to the internal-combustion class, which makes it a first cousin to the gasoline engine, so familiar on automobiles, motor boats and elsewhere, it differs widely from its odoriferous relative. The most important difference is in the fuel used, which is crude petroleum. This completely eliminates the constant danger inseparably connected with the use of gasoline, for crude oil is non-explosive. In fact, it is as safe as coal. Another important difference is in the means of firing the charge of fuel in the engine. All automobilists are familiar with the wonderful capacity the electric spark, which sometimes fires the charge in a gasoline engine, has for failing at the very time when it is most particularly wanted to do its work well. The Diesel marine engine is of the two-cycle type; that is, the fuel charge is compressed at one stroke and fired and exhausted in the next. In the Diesel engine the cylinder is filled with pure air which is compressed at one stroke of the piston to a pressure of 500 pounds to the square inch. This sudden and high degree of compression raises the temperature of the air in the cylinder to a point more than sufficient to ignite the crude oil, which is now injected by a jet of air from a reservoir, supplied by an independent pump, at a pressure 250 pounds above that in the cylinder. The jet of oil is finely divided by passing through a spool of wire netting so that each particle

of oil is surrounded by a film of air. As there is more than enough air present for combustion, and as combustion takes place in compressed air more readily than at atmospheric pressure, the charge is instantly and completely consumed, the expansion of the gases of combustion forcing the piston forward. Near the end of the stroke a jet of compressed air blows the gases out through the exhaust ports and fills the cylinder with air again for the next compression stroke. As there is nothing to get out of order the firing method never fails so long as the engine itself is in working order. It is the ideal of simplicity, efficiency and reliability.

One virtue of the Diesel engine which would commend it to a good housekeeper is the fact that combustion is so complete that the exhaust will not soil a white handkerchief held within a foot of the end of the exhaust pipe. No trace of deposit can be found on the inside of a cylinder that has been running constantly for weeks. It is the cleanest of engines.

But its special attraction for vessel owners is the ability of the oil engine to utilize from 30 to 35 per cent. of the heat value of the fuel supplied to it, as compared with 23 per cent. utilized by a gasoline engine and 13 per cent. by the best type of steam plant with superheater. A Diesel engine working at full capacity requires four-tenths of a pound of oil to produce one horse power for one hour, while a steam engine requires 1.47 pounds of coal to do the same work. An oil engine requires only 28 per cent. of the weight of fuel that a steam engine of the same capacity would require for the same length of time, according to Chief Surveyor Milton. Dr. Diesel, himself, says his engine requires only a fifth to a sixth of the weight of fuel that a steam engine would. When it is remembered that a ship's double bottom, tanks in bow and stern, and other places not available for cargo can be utilized for carrying fuel oil, and that all the space occupied by boilers and coal bunkers in a steamship is saved for revenue producing cargo in a motor ship, some idea of

the advantages offered by such craft may be obtained. For example, if the *Lusitania* had oil engines, she could make the same speed on 280 tons of oil a day that she now makes on a thousand tons of coal. This would make a difference of 3,600 tons in the weight of fuel that would have to be carried on a voyage. Besides this the enormous amount of space now given up to boilers and funnels in the choicest part of the ship could be turned over to passengers or used for cargo.

Or, to give more precise figures, it has been calculated that in a motor ship of 5400 tons now building for the Black Sea trade 15,000 cubic feet of space in the hold can be saved, which on four voyages a year would earn \$4380. In addition to this the vessel would save \$2677 on fuel and \$1168 on wages of stokers and coal-passers, making a total saving of \$8225 a year as compared with a steamship of the same capacity.

Other merits of the motor ship are that oil fuel may be taken on board much more easily, quickly and cheaply than coal and that coal trimming is eliminated. As there is no steam to raise, the ship is always ready to start at a moment's notice, while there is no expense whatever for fuel while the vessel is at anchor. The work is easier for the engineers and more comfortable, too; because the engine-room is cooler. Finally, so little fuel is required that the vessel can go much farther without stopping for a fresh supply. Dr. Diesel says that a warship with oil engines could go around the world, fight battles, and return to her home port without stopping for fuel.

All the numerous auxiliaries needed on shipboard can be operated by small oil engines as readily as by steam. An electric generator driven by an oil engine will supply current for lights, for steering, for ventilation, for running winches and windlass, for operating bilge and other pumps, while the waste gases can be used for heating, and compressed air pumped by an oil engine blows the whistle. Compressed air is also used for starting the engines and for reversing.



PANAMA,—THE NEXT STEP

BY FORBES LINDSAY

Author of "Panama and the Canal To-Day"

THE Panama Canal is approaching completion with a rapidity that amazes even those who have been familiar with the work since its inception. Everything along the line moves with precision and promptness. Each day—almost every hour—leaves its perceptible mark upon the task. Our engineers have entered upon the beginning of the end. Eighty per cent. of the necessary excavation in the Culebra Cut has been made; the huge lock gates are in course of erection; the site of Gatun Lake is being cleared preparatory to its reception of water.

Every detail of the remaining work in connection with the construction is planned and provided for, even to the final process of cleaning up the line. The canal administration would be proceeding with an easy mind were it not for consideration of the problems involved in the operation of the waterway. These are the source of the greatest anxiety, because their early solution is necessary to the success of the undertaking.

The construction period has been highly creditable to the nation. It would be shameful if the brilliancy of the greatest engineering feat in the history of the world should be tarnished by blunders and failures in connection with the operation. This is likely to be the case unless the next Congress takes decisive action upon the Canal bill which will be presented to it.

In considering this question, it must be constantly borne in mind that the Panama Canal is first and last a commercial enterprise. Its strategic function is of unquestionable, but secondary importance. It is in recognition of this principle that the Chief Engineer recommends the assumption by the Government of a variety of business functions such as the supplying of coal, oil, food, laundry work, repairs, ship chandlery,—everything, in short, that a vessel in commission may need.

To quote Colonel Goethals: "Having built the canal, the next thing will be to secure to the people who have paid for it a fair return on their money." And that is the thought underlying the proposed legislation.

The first consideration is to attract a considerable amount of patronage from the out-

set, not only on account of the immediate profit, but also because, as with all business projects, the degree of success enjoyed at the start greatly influences future prosperity.

When the canal is opened, the management will not be in the position of the owner of a new shoe store, who has no more to do than throw wide his doors and invite the public to enter and become customers. Regular traffic can be secured by the canal only after the conditions of its use have been known for a sufficient time to allow of preparation. Owners of vessels already on regular runs will not divert them to the Panama route until they have satisfied themselves by calculation of the toll charges and methods of tonnage measurement that they can profitably do so. They will also be influenced by the facilities for coaling, and other conveniences, that may be assured to them. The canal will accommodate any vessel at present afloat, but in many cases ships will not be able to avail themselves of it, because the regulations for measurement will apply unfavorably to their construction, or because their coal capacity is insufficient for the new route.

SHIPBUILDING PROBLEMS

The most eager bid of the canal administration is for the patronage of vessels that shall be especially built to use the American waterway. Within eighteen months the canal will be ready for the passage of ships from one ocean to the other. The interval is no more than sufficient for the building of a good-sized ocean-going steamer. In many instances owners are deferring orders and builders postponing construction in the hope of receiving at an early date information on which they may decide whether or not to use the Panama Canal. The plans of a projected vessel would be seriously affected by this question. Rates of toll and methods of measurement will influence construction in vital particulars. The maximum journey between reliable coaling stations determines the capacity of bunkers. A steamer running between Liverpool and Melbourne by way of the Suez Canal would probably coal at Port Said and Colombo. Its utmost bunker ca-

capacity would provide for the 4000 mile leg between the latter port and the Australian terminus of the route. If the run should be by way of the Panama Canal, it would be necessary to provide enough coal space for the 6500 mile steam between Colon and Wellington. Draught and beam,—in fact, the entire form and dimensions of the vessel,—would be dependent upon these considerations.

A considerable amount of traffic may be permanently lost to the canal by a few months of unnecessary delay on the part of Congress. In the interests of American commerce and coastwise shipping, as well as in fairness to the great commercial nations, upon whose patronage the success of the enterprise is mainly dependent, the United States Government should declare its policy of administration at once. Shippers and maritime organizations throughout the world are impatiently awaiting the announcement; the movement of many vessels and the trend of trade in several staples depend upon it. At the present time the establishment of more than one steamship line is held in abeyance on this account.

THE PERMANENT ADMINISTRATION

The need of legislation in the matters of tolls and method of measurement is the most urgent, but hardly more so than the necessity for making immediate provision for the future organization. Colonel Goethals is confident of his ability to form an adequate force from the material now at his command, but he is convinced that, if action is delayed until it becomes necessary to have recourse to unseasoned and inexperienced men, the result will be considerably higher cost and lower efficiency in the maintenance of the canal.

Throughout our operations on the Isthmus there has been going on a process tending to the elimination of the unfit and to steady improvement in the matters of skill, physique, and morale of those retained. The result is a standard higher than that existing among any body of men in the service of our country. It is a valuable national asset. No one appreciates the fact better than the man under whose direction it has been created, and he is keenly anxious that it should be turned to the utmost account by retaining the best of it intact in the service of the canal administration. If this is to be done at all, it must be arranged for immediately, because, with the diminishing necessities of the work, the commission is beginning to reduce the force

THE OPERATING FORCE

At least half of the trained and disciplined body of Americans now in the service can be employed in connection with the operation of the canal. The selection of the new operatives should be undertaken at once, and the task of drilling them in their future duties should be begun not later than the middle of next year. It is the opinion of Colonel Goethals that the men who are to handle the machinery of the canal should have at least eighteen months of preliminary experience and practice with it. If this is provided for, the operation of the waterway will follow its completion with the least possible dislocation, the greatest economy, and no likelihood of accident.

REDUCTIONS IN THE WAGE SCALE PROPOSED

Colonel Goethals, who is chiefly responsible for the provisions which will be contained in the prospective bill, has given much careful thought to means of contriving the lowest costs, consistent with efficiency, in the matter of wages, operation, and sanitation. It is not proposed that the high wage scale at present in effect shall apply to the future employees. That scale was instituted when the force was first recruited, and when residence in the Zone entailed dangers and discomforts which have long since been eradicated from the situation. Under present conditions the suggested compromise appears to be eminently fair. In the case of machinists, who are now receiving 65 cents an hour, as against 40 cents paid to their class in the States, the bill fixes a rate of 50 cents. In other grades the adjustment is made on a proportional scale. It has been ascertained that a number of men, probably sufficient for the requirements, are willing to remain on the proposed terms, but it is not believed that new men can be engaged without higher pay.

In short, early legislation will enable the commission to organize an operating force of picked men, acclimated, and familiar with the work, at less cost than a corps of raw and inexperienced newcomers, who may imperil the operation of the canal.

NEW LEGISLATION REQUIRED

Less urgent, but highly important, are the other matters embraced in the Canal bill. Its principal sections provide for (1) determining rates of toll and methods of tonnage measurement; (2) the creation of a permanent

organization; (3) the future occupation of the Canal Zone; (4) the control of vessels passing through the canal; (5) the future status of the Panama Railroad.

The bill contemplates an organization under the control of a single head, subject to appointment and removal by the President. The scheme of this organization involves the subordination of all offices and functions within the Zone to the operation of the canal during times of peace, with provision for the immediate and automatic transfer of control to the military authority in the event of war, when the officer commanding the garrison in the Zone would assume entire charge of the waterway and the territory, while the superintendent of the canal would take the position of a staff officer.

Colonel Goethals is strongly of the opinion that the superintendent of the canal should be an engineer officer of the army or navy, and he thinks that among his subordinates can be found a man thoroughly qualified to fill the post.

The prevalent idea that the administration contemplates the appointment of the present Chief Engineer, and that he is desirous of obtaining the position, is altogether fallacious. President Taft has no thought of Colonel Goethals in that connection, if for no other reason, because he is fully aware of that officer's determination to retire from the army two years hence, when he will have completed more than thirty years of service.

POLICING THE CANAL ZONE

After its completion, the administration of the canal will involve the police supervision and sanitation of the Zone. On this subject Colonel Goethals has very pronounced views, which at first met with the opposition of some of his colleagues who had probably given less thought to the matter than himself. There is now, however, a nearly general agreement as to the wisdom of his plan. This is no less than the removal and exclusion from the Zone of all persons not included in the military and operating forces. By this measure, for which the bill provides, a great saving may be effected in the expense of sanitation and police supervision. These services would be

confined to the immediate localities of Gatun, Miraflores, Pedro Miguel, Ancon, and Balboa. The remainder of the territory would be uninhabited and might be allowed to lapse into jungle without becoming the source of disease or the scene of disorder, as it surely will if the present two or three thousand negro squatters are permitted to continue the occupancy of their miserable homes in the brush, and settlers are allowed to locate on the spare land, as has been suggested in certain quarters.

THE GOVERNMENT TO PROVIDE PILOTS

Exhaustive thought and experiment have been expended upon measures and mechanical contrivances to guard against accidents in the operation of the canal. It is the belief of the Chief Engineer that these precautions should be extended to embrace the possibility of damage by design. "What" he said, in conversation with the writer, "is to prevent a merchant or naval vessel of a foreign nation from deliberately ramming our works under pretense of a mistake on the bridge or in the engine room?" It is to obviate such a contingency that a section of the bill confers upon the management of the canal authority to take charge of *all* vessels entering the waterway and to place a pilot on board of each, with entire control of navigation during its passage. It is believed that masters of merchant vessels would welcome the relief from responsibility to be secured by such a measure, and that owners and insurers would find in it a protection by reason of the ready location of claims for damages that might be incurred in transit. On the other hand, every commander of a naval vessel, whether of the United States or a foreign power, may be expected to resent it. Nevertheless, it is considered a necessary military precaution, and one that, if provided for by present Congressional action, will create less offense than it would as an emergency measure in time of war.

The bill provides for the treatment of the Panama Railroad—at present a separate interest,—as a complementary accessory of the canal, and its adaptation to any military needs that may arise.



CHARTING AND LIGHTING THE CARIBBEAN

BY HERBERT JANVRIN BROWNE

AN average annual loss in wrecks in excess of two million dollars in the Caribbean Sea directs attention to certain problems in this basin, considered as the Atlantic approach to the Panama Canal, now nearing completion. That the stated loss is due principally to conditions which can be remedied is recognized by all maritime authorities. That this record of marine disaster threatens to rise proportionately with the prospective threefold development of commerce through the canal urges consideration of these problems in their larger and more scientific aspect.

With a longer littoral and area equal to the Mediterranean, the Caribbean presents a series of related conditions no less interesting than those of the Suez gateway and far less advanced toward solution. Foremost in immediate commercial and maritime importance come questions of accurate and comprehensive charting, of adequate lighthouses, beacons and buoys. Following closely run the detailed and seasonal study of currents, meteorology, magnetic variations, and the imperfectly known contours of the ocean bed. The geology of the littoral and islands needs critical examination, for in few other portions of the known globe are the forces of erosion, upheaval, and coastal growth in such rapid operation. Caribbean biology, from the side of scientific economics, is fallow. The cursory voyage of the *Albatross*, the three cruises of the *Blake*, and the comprehensive work of Evermann on the fishes of Porto Rico and of Jordan on the fishes of Cuba and Jamaica are mere "spies in Canaan" in one of the richest fields of marine investigation in the world.

Four centuries have passed and yet the Caribbean is almost as closed to exact knowledge as when the first white keel shared its blue waters.

CHARTS

Despite the lapse of time and the gift of opportunity, no accurate chart of the south coast of Cuba and its outlying keys and barrier reef has ever been made. Cape Maysi

to Cape Cruz is charted only from the merest reconnaissance. The Naval Hydrographic Office is now working up the coast from Cape Cruz toward Cienfuegos, but from Cienfuegos to Cape San Antonio the maps are notably defective. From Cayo Largo to Punta de L'Este, not a single island is surveyed or accurately placed, and scores of the smaller keys are not even designated. The lower extremity of Calapatch Reef is several miles from its indicated bearing. The soundings of the channels leading into Batabano are unreliable, and many of the passages through the keys are known only to the native fishermen and spongers. Pichado's map of the Isle of Pines is inaccurate at many points. Through channels unknown to the chart makers it would be possible to take a fleet of torpedo boats from one side of the Isle of Pines to the other at full speed by day or night. The importance of this fact to the American navy will become apparent should ever a great maritime battle come for supremacy in the Caribbean.

The nomenclature of this region is grotesquely mixed. The Cuban Cay Cantilles has become to the English sailors King Taylor key; Cantilles reef has been variously altered to King Taylor reef or Kicking Taylor reef, and now appears on the charts moved ten miles to the east and south as Jack Taylor reef. A word for the lexicographers is "Mehagan"; Calapatch Mehagan reef as it appears on the chart should be Calapatch reef, Mehagan being an Indian word for a coral reef exposed at all times. Calapatch is a corruption of carapace and is applied like the latter word to the upper shell of the sea-turtle.

The Mexican coast from Cape Catoche south scarcely has been touched except for the meager examinations of ports and harbors; and excepting British Honduras and brief work near Greytown the whole Central American coast, including Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, is badly charted. The work in Panama can be left to the Canal Commission, which is doing everything under its control in the most



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE CHARTING OF THE CARIBBEAN SEA

thorough manner. But the tale of duty unfulfilled begins again with the Colombian coast and continues until Venezuela ceases and British Guiana takes up the white man's burden. Caribbean harbors and their entrances are in the main well charted. Spanish navigators and port officials have shown good results where hand work and the lesser instruments of survey sufficed. This earlier cartography has been supplemented principally by British surveys. British Honduras is dependably completed, as are the various British insular possessions. The Danish, Dutch and French island charts were considered satisfactory up till ten years ago, but the Martinique explosion and consequent disturbance of the ocean bed has made advisable a reëxamination of the entire Windward quadrangle. Porto Rico has been charted in the scientific method of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, and a Hydrographic Office survey of Haiti is approaching completion.

LIGHTHOUSES

The tourist entering the harbor of Colon sees to his left a lighthouse of ancient mold and inferior order. This is one of the oldest in the Caribbean. Like so many institutions of Spanish America, it was privately constructed and a concession for its operation bestowed by the Captain-General of Panama upon the builder and his family in perpetuity. For generations this fortunate tribute gatherer and his descendants fed the feeble glimmer with tallow drip and taxed the tonnage of every vessel entering Colon harbor. How the problem of disposing of this mortmain is to be met is not here related, but the instance typifies the unlighted condition of the Caribbean basin so far as affected by Spanish rule.

The Mediterranean coast has 534 lighthouses of a minimum of ten miles visibility; the Caribbean with a longer shore line offers the entirely inadequate protection of but ninety-six. The 1800 miles of dangerous coast from Cape Catoche to the Panama Canal has but twenty-seven superior lights visible over aggregate diameters of some 600 miles, leaving 1200 miles unprotected. Two thousand miles of Panaman, Colombian, and Venezuelan fringes, from the Canal to Bocas de Dragos, have fifteen lights, visible a total distance of less than 400 miles. The coastal islands of South America and the Lesser Antilles, numbering over 100, show but twenty-nine beacons.

British Jamaica, with some 400 miles of sea front, has five lights, while Porto Rico,

comparable in extent, shows the benefit of American control with thirteen. The hopelessly inefficient governments of Haiti and San Domingo threaten the passing commerce of the world with the dangers of over 1200 miles of coast on which six lighthouses feebly glimmer. Grand Cayman, dependency of Jamaica, offers the weak rays of two lanterns hung on poles, while Little Cayman and Cayman Brac are unlighted. Here is wrecking made profitable and respectable. From these islands numerous small, fast schooners, manned by the boldest and most skillful wreckers in the world, have for years preyed unchecked upon vessels in distress within a radius of 500 miles of their base of operations. The writer has seen in squalid huts in Grand Cayman priceless furniture and French cut glass, worth many times the value of the house itself.

OCEAN CURRENTS

Two equatorial currents enter the Caribbean through the passes of the Lesser Antilles, cross its vast stretches, and barely join in the forced embraces of the tumultuous channel of Yucatan. Again separating, three streams are formed, one encircling, the second dividing the Gulf of Mexico, finally uniting with the third in the Straits of Florida. These twin thermal rivers of the Caribbean are flanked on either side by counter currents hugging the continental and Cuban coasts until they surrender to the tropic sun or sink to the slow-moving abysses of the sea.

These surface currents are subject to extraordinary changes of volume, speed, direction, and temperature, effects of partially understood seasonal and meteorological conditions. Only careful and long-continued stream measurements and observations at critical and widely separated points, joined and harmonized with extended weather and tidal observations, will solve these problems.

Imperfect knowledge of the comingling of an easterly offshoot of the North equatorial current with the Cuban counter current between Cape San Antonio and the Isle of Pines has resulted in enormous loss of property by wrecks in the vicinity of Cape Corrientes, Cuba, in the last three years. Pushed up by the shallow bottom of the approaching coast this strange current doubles its speed at times to four knots an hour, and the unfortunate navigator caught unawares in the eastern curve finds his vessel piled up on the unlighted Cuban coast. A sum represented by the losses at this one point

would cover the cost of the most comprehensive and scientific survey outlined in this article.

Oceanographers maintain that the variations in the movements of the waters of the Caribbean affect directly and indirectly every branch of human activity in the great nations on both sides of the North Atlantic.

METEOROLOGY

Like the Mediterranean, with its sirocco and white storm, the Caribbean is subject to seasonal tempests, the winter norther never rising to destructive force, and the West Indian hurricane occurring rarely in June or November, but rising in violence and frequency from July to mid-October. These latter phenomena, recognized for hundreds of years, received their first accurate and systematic forecasts from the priestly observers of Belen College, Havana. For years their profound and accurate predictions had remained unnoticed by the outside world, until, aroused by the Galveston flood of 1900, it was discovered that the course of the hurricane had been forecasted and reported from Havana with warning of its dangerous nature forty-eight hours in advance of the calamity. Now the whole world receives with instant appreciation the storm signals of these black-garbed students of the sky. This work, too, is but begun. With properly equipped stations in Central and South America and the Windward Islands, supplementing those of Cuba and the United States, not only will the shipping of the Caribbean be served, but the important commerce of the Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic Seaboard and unmeasured agricultural and industrial interests of the mainland, not to mention aerial navigation and wireless telegraphy.

PERMANENT INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE EXPLORATION OF THE SEA

It is evident that a comprehensive study of the Caribbean problems calls for international treatment. The territories of fifteen governments border on this basin. The harbors and coasts of other nations cannot be invaded even for friendly surveys. Light-houses and weather stations are national projects. At the present moment an excellent

illustration may serve to light the way toward a solution.

In June, 1899, there assembled in Stockholm a conference notable for the eminence of its members no less than for the great object sought—the establishment of a commission for maritime investigation. Delegates were present from Great Britain, Germany, Russia, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland. Among them were Sir John Murray, scientific director of the *Challenger* expedition, Captain Fridtjof Nansen, the intrepid Norwegian Arctic explorer, Professor Johan Hjort, of Bergen, Dr. Max Weber, of the University of Amsterdam, Dr. Oscar von Grim, of St. Petersburg, Dr. Otto Petterssen, of Sweden, and many other notable scientists. After deliberation, but without waste of time, three committees were appointed to formulate:

(1) Hydrographic questions; (2) biological questions; (3) organization of an administrative center.

The keynote of the conference was immediately sounded—scientific investigation on lines which would find justification in practical economic results. From this conference arose speedily the now famous Permanent International Council for the Exploration of the Sea with a central bureau in Copenhagen under Dr. Walter Herwig, President of the International Council, and an international biological laboratory at Christiania under Dr. Fridtjof Nansen. Its work from the beginning has proven of immense economic value. Within territorial waters each nation carries on the work with a clear view of its relation to the general field. On the high seas the work is directed from the central bureau. Somewhat on the same lines is the Royal Italian Maritime Commission, organized in 1909, for work in the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas in conjunction with the Austro-Hungarian Government.

Herein lies the germ of the idea for a practical solution of the Caribbean problems: a conference committee to meet in Washington under official invitation at an early date, international in its membership and of the highest scientific and economic rank. Such a committee would be able to formulate plans and organization, to define the work and recommend methods for its practical accomplishment.



ANGLO-AMERICAN ARBITRATION AND THE FAR EAST

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE

THE second Anglo-Japanese agreement of 1905 was intended to live until August, 1915. On July 13, 1911, it was killed in the prime of its career. On that day a new treaty was signed. They were much alike, the old and the new; but the new had just one article that the old had not. It was this:

Article IV. Should either high contracting party conclude a treaty of general arbitration with a third power, it is agreed that nothing in this agreement shall entail upon such contracting party an obligation to go to war with the power with whom such treaty of arbitration is in force.

That was practically the only new element introduced. That one sentence brought about a new heaven,—so at least we of Japan devoutly hope—and certainly a new earth in Far Eastern diplomacy.

Two views are taken of the revised treaty by Japanese. One differs widely from the other:

"It is not without a distasteful hint of being a scarecrow," says Count Okuma. And Mr. Inukai, one of the leaders of the Popular Party, declares it is "not too much to say that our country is boycotted in international relations in the Far East." The *Hochi*, of Tokyo, sounds the alarm saying that Japan will be left standing in the cold in "inglorious isolation."

Why? Because the new provision permits Japan or England, either one, to conclude a treaty of general arbitration with Russia, China, or any other power and stay out of sharing trouble with the ally. In a military sense, the treaty is a high-sounding bit of composition—nothing more.

Is the Indian frontier threatened by Russia? All that Japan need do is to enter into a treaty of general arbitration with Russia for a limited period of time—very limited, if she likes—and she need move not a soldier as far as the fulfilment of the stipulations of the treaty are concerned. Is there any possibility of either Russia or Japan declining to enter into such an arbitration treaty at such a time? Not very likely, seeing that Russia would fight one power rather than two and Japan does not fight (the threadbare international joke to the contrary notwithstanding)

ing) for the sheer love of spending money and killing her sons.

Is Japan threatened with a Russian war of revenge, and the inevitable fight for the all-the-year open port on which, the international prophets have told us, Russia is forever bent? England would conclude a treaty with Russia. Is that impossible? The *Novoye Vremya's* editorial comment on the new treaty is suggestive in this connection. Everybody knows the *Novoye Vremya* is a semi-official organ. This journal declares that Russia should enter into a general arbitration treaty with Great Britain: that, in fact, Russia has a greater reason to do so than the United States. Russia has no cause to fight Great Britain. More than that, such a war is impossible. Great Britain can not possibly manœuvre her dreadnoughts up to Moscow, nor can Russia land an army on the banks of the Thames.

In short, the diplomatic slate of the Far East is wiped clean. As for Japan, the very foundations of her diplomatic policy have been swept away from under her. For have not Marquis Komura and a number of other high officials declared that the Anglo-Japanese treaty is the cardinal article in Nippon's diplomatic creed? And it is nothing short of this very cardinal article of faith that has been turned into a bit of pretty rhetoric. Therefore, the field is wide open for a new alignment of the powers in the Far East, for a new combination.

There are men in Japan and abroad who, with Dr. Suehiro of the Kyoto University, believe that the special interests which Japan has acquired in China, especially in Manchuria, would throw her into the arms of Russia, which has similar interests to protect. Germany is friendly to Russia. All through the trying days of the Russian war, the Kaiser took special pains in showing his love for the Czar, sensationally and dramatically. Therefore, the breakdown of the old Anglo-Japanese combination spells the coming of the triple understanding with Russia, Germany, and Japan. This is one of the two views.

If a community of economic interests be the basis of alliance, there is, however, some-

thing the matter with the above view. There is no more formidable competitor for Japan in the Far East than Germany. In comparison, America is a thoughtless, indolent, free-handed amateur. Like Japan, Russia has her special Manchurian interests, it is true; and, like Japan, she will doubtless take measures to safeguard them. But who forgets or can forget Russia's traditional, national ambition for the year-round open port and the establishment of her great Far Eastern Empire? Certainly not Japan. And the establishment of a great Russian empire in the Far East is not the most comfortable thing for the very life of the Japanese empire. A question of life and death has a way of making a man or a nation indecently indifferent to commercial and economic interests. Besides, if Russia is as inclined to conclude a treaty of general arbitration with England, as the *Novoye Vremya* tells us she is, the new combination would go back to Great Britain in a roundabout way, in the end.

The second view of the revised Anglo-Japanese alliance is that the new treaty has brought about a new triple alliance, composed of Great Britain, the United States, and Japan.

The Anglo-American arbitration treaty is in reality a treaty of alliance—of the most efficient kind. The solid and undivided support of the two peoples is back of it, to say nothing of the ties of kinship and commercial community of interests. Article IV of the new Anglo-Japanese treaty is nothing more than the recognition of this fundamental fact. Therefore, by her recognition of the above-mentioned fact and through Great Britain's arbitration treaty with America, Japan has become a party to the Anglo-American pact.

From the "very conception of the Anglo-Japanese treaty," says the Tokyo *Jiji* (which enjoys the reputation of being the London *Times* of Japan), in its long editorial of July 16, 1911,

America was nowhere within the scope of its vision [as a hostile power]. Both of the contracting powers looked upon America as an ally even as they were one to the other. The British and the American are of the same race, speaking the same language, bound together by the blood-is-thicker-than-water ties. In addition their political and economic relations are rather more intimate than those of the allied powers. As for our country, she has maintained toward America the traditional friendship that is peculiar and apart. Our relations have been exceedingly deep rooted. We have ever looked upon America as our treatyless ally. Therefore, both with England and Japan, the very thought of a war with America is

ever impossible in their ten thousand fancies. Even if such an impossibility as either England or Japan going into war against America come to pass, neither of the contracting parties would have thought of calling on the other for armed co-operation. In actual fact, in spite of the letter of the offensive and defensive alliance, that would have been recognized as a question entirely apart. Now the new treaty has stated the exception in regard to America.

The sentiment of the above editorial may come as news to some of our American friends—especially to the readers of the Peking correspondent's dispatches of a certain New York paper and of the war-scare headliners of another paper, which has no correspondents of its own in the Far East. But we may be forgiven for venturing a wager that the Tokyo *Jiji* might have a slight advantage in knowing what it is talking about over either of the New York papers in question.

Count Hayashi, who was our Ambassador at the St. James Court at the time of the Russian war and later Minister of Foreign Affairs, comments on the significance of the new treaty in even stronger terms. He has said:

The Anglo-American arbitration treaty, on its consummation and as long as it stands, ranks much higher than any treaty of alliance. . . . The relations between America and England, in every direction, are deeper and broader, ten fold, than those between England and Japan. . . . That the treaty of alliance is powerless against the arbitration treaty, whose aim is to maintain the lasting peace between the two countries of such intimate relationship, is neither wonderful nor is it to be viewed with apprehension. In this world there are those who try to raise waves on a flat ground by noising abroad a thing which, as Japanese, we cannot see even in our dreams, such as a Japanese-American war. At this juncture, therefore, with the conclusion of our treaty with England, we should go a step farther and dare the decisive and wise act of concluding a treaty of arbitration with America and thus destroy the very root of such mischievous and malicious rumors as the American-Japanese war talk.

These two views differ very widely. They are one, strangely enough, in one respect—on the all-important point—the new treaty's bearing on the peace of the Far East. Take whichever you prefer. Agree, if you like, with the leaders of the popular party in Japan and say that the new treaty makes for the isolation of Japan among the Powers in the Far East; even, with the *Hochi*, that it makes for her "inglorious isolation." What then? In her isolation, with her back-breaking financial burdens and the two white elephants, Korea and Manchuria, Japan is not likely to have much time or inclination to dream of conquests and aggres-

sive wars. She has found out that those things cost much money and more suffering. Or, you may say with a number of newspaper correspondents, that this new treaty forces the combination of Russia, Germany, and Japan in the Far East. Even if such a combination were brought about, how could Japan or Russia or Germany, go to war? The embarrassment of riches in financial and colonial troubles of Japan would not permit the very thought of it. The internal troubles and the incomplete Siberian program of Russia would not encourage it for years to come, and the commercialism of Germany would simply forbid it. In the light of the triple alliance of England, America, and Japan, the very thought of launching a war of aggression is simply absurd. More than that, it is impossible.

Whichever way you may look at the situation, therefore, the one fact stands supreme. The new Anglo-Japanese treaty marks the new era of peace in the Far East. Another fact is that the new treaty is the direct outcome of the Anglo-American arbitration treaty.

Whether the Anglo-American treaty pass the United States Senate or not, no one can say. The august Senators will probably decide its fate early next month. As far as Asiatic diplomacy is concerned, it matters not at all. Article IV of the new Anglo-Japanese treaty is the chief contribution of the American arbitration treaty to the diplomats of the Far East. And the most eloquent thing about it all is the prompt and eager manner in which Japan took to the new provision excluding the United States from the list of possible powers against whom, in time of trouble, she may expect British help.

Here is the death blow to all the entertaining talk of the American-Japanese war lunacy. If there were a bare ghost of a possibility of Japan's getting into trouble with America, she would have hesitated over the pregnant Article IV of the new treaty. Did she? Did she at least insist that the treaty should not be murdered four years before its natural term of life? Not at all. The new treaty was concluded in a manner and time scandalously brief and sudden for so important an agreement.

It came at the right time, also. The so-called four-power loan to China was successfully negotiated this year. Much talk has been manufactured over it, some of it not intended for the funny sheet of a Sunday newspaper. There were prophets among the

American newspaper correspondents in the Far East, who told us that America is bound to fight Japan over Manchuria. They talked as if America would actually send her soldiers six thousand miles over sea to fight and die for money—not for the life of Mr. Morgan and others of Wall Street or Mr. Straight who represents them, but for their money invested in China! The new treaty makes it plain that if the American soldiers insist on going out to Manchuria to die for American bankers' money, they will have to find some other power besides Japan to furnish shots and powder. Moreover, there are people in Japan who think that the Chinese, not the Japanese, would give the American bankers all the worry they may wish to have over their investments in China. Witness the revolutionary volcano upon which the dragon throne of the Manchu dynasty rests. No one, not even Wall Street men, can expect the real Chinese, the sons of Han, when they come into their own ancient sovereignty, to pay the debts of their enemy, the Peking government of to-day.

Moreover, the manner of the coming of the new treaty was very good. As the *London Times* editorially points out:

The treaty of 1905 was concluded by the British Government on its own initiative, without the previous adhesion of the governments of the dominions. Its revision and renewal in the present summer have been carried out only after the fullest consultation with the Dominion Ministers recently in London, who are all understood to have given it their unreserved support.

Of late we have heard a good deal of the bitter opposition of the British colonies to the Anglo-Japanese treaty. As late as April, 1910, a Mr. Lawton, said to be "an expert in Far Eastern affairs," wrote in the *London World*:

When Japan is free from the toils of the Manchurian situation, she certainly will deal energetically with her emigration difficulties. Great Britain will then be called upon to choose between her colonies and her Eastern allies.

At the time, this writer evidently thought that he was voicing the general sentiments of the colonies—especially those of Canada and "white Australia." It seems he was wrong. Japan is not sorry that he was, for if ever a power did try its conscientious best to regulate its emigrants, for no other end than to please its neighbors and friends—and that, too, at a decided expense to its own emigrants, and in the face of pretty uncomfortable criticisms at home—Japan has certainly done so.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

OPINION IN TURKEY AND ITALY ON THE WAR

THE Siberia of Turkey—such was the rôle forced on Tripoli for a quarter of a century by ex-Sultan Abdul Hamid. Tripoli-in-Barbary—Tarabulus-ul-Gharb (Tripoli of the West), as the Turks and Arabs call it—was the exile-land of the old Turkish despotism, until the revolution, which, in 1908, put an end to the reign of Abdul Hamid.

It was during the governorship of Rechid Pasha, the best ruler Tripoli ever had, that the province saw the first signs of a coming Italian invasion. Rechid Pasha tried to organize a strong local military force, but the proud, fiery Arabs refused to be organized and trained. Of the Tripolitanian Arabs, a contemporary writer says:

They are fiery and warlike Arab tribesmen, more business-like and intelligent than the other north African Moslems, and of such an independent character that even the Sultan's authority has not been very strong in some parts of the interior. Since the downfall of Abdul Hamid, the government has started a campaign in the hinterland of Tripoli, toward Sahara, and Turkish soldiers have often had trouble with French foreign legions near Tunisia, where the border is not yet well determined. A commission of French and Turkish officers has been appointed to straighten the frontier question out. . . . The country is inhabited by different tribes of Arabs, Berbers, Turks who have settled there, and Bedouins. In the interior, toward the Sahara, the Wadai, Tuareg, and Senussiyeh tribesmen are the masters, although they are Ottoman subjects. Tripoli is the door to the Sahara and these tribes pass and repass through. The fiercest are the Tuaregs and the Senussiyeh, the latter being very religious and quite capable of arousing the hundreds of thousands of Moslems living in the desert. They can be depended upon to fight for years, if ordered so by their Caliph, in a Jihad or Holy War, against the invading Christians. The Sultan, however, will never use that power and it is more probable that he may order them to stop such wars. It is a question if these children of the desert would obey him. They can declare a holy war on the initiative of their own Sheikhs, but it is improbable that such a declaration would affect the relations of Moslems and Christians in other countries.

The Turkish press had been actively discussing Tripoli and Italy for several months before the war broke out and have printed some very strong articles on the subject. Those appearing before the first Italian operations blame what they call the "policy of compensation." First they accuse France of having begun to violate the Algéciras Act,

then Germany which had spoiled her previous good act of sending the *Panther* to Agadir, by accepting as a "compensation" some land in the Congo, and finally the Young Imperialistic Italy, trying at all costs to seize Tripoli, in order to preserve the Mediterranean balance of power. The unreadiness of Hakki Pasha's cabinet, which was taken by surprise, came in for a good deal of blame. Before the war all the papers were urging the government to spare nothing to prepare Tripoli with men, ammunition, and provisions. As the war cloud came nearer the entire press became more and more furious at Italy and cried out that international law, treaties, arbitration courts are not made for dealings between Christian nations and non-Christians, the latter not being considered as men. Some attack the "European conscience," for the injustice and unfairness to non-Christians, and show as a contrast how the earlier Caliphs and Sultans treated their enemies the Crusaders fairly, when capturing them or conquering them.

Ex-Minister Babanzadé (Hakki) bey, writing in the *Tanine* (Echo) says:

In former ages, it was a barbarian rule that when one power took a part of our country, all the others immediately stepped in for their share, to maintain the balance of power . . . loudly proclaiming at the same time without any shame their belief in the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. It was to be hoped that with the extension of a knowledge of international law, and with the many peace congresses, this would change a little. . . . The Italian press should ask France and Germany, which have upset the equilibrium, for compensation. If not in Morocco, then let France give up something in Djibouti, Madagascar, or Indo-China. To straighten out the equilibrium is the duty of those who have upset it. Our weapons are a general boycott of Italian merchandise and institutions, the denunciation of all treaties, the expulsion of Italians, and the sending of our fleet to Tripoli. Is it not better to be crushed, if this must be, while fighting bravely, rather than to be strangled without a move?

The *Jeune Turc* attacks the members of the Triple Entente, all having Moslem colonies, for their injustice toward them, and says:

We have Tripoli, Cyrenaica, Fezzan, and the Senussiyeh Sheikh is our subject. According to international law all the hinterland of Tripoli is ours. . . . They talk about Italian influence, about French zones, and may soon include the North Pole in their claims.

In another long editorial reviewing the relation of Italy and Tripoli, written some time before the war broke out, the *Jeune Turc* says:

Since the constitution of their kingdom, the Italians have had schemes for imperialism. . . . Their African policies have been full of disappointment. France had taken Algeria, and had signed with Sadik Pasha, the vali of Tunisia, in 1882, the treaty of Bordu (never recognized by us Turks and void according to international law). To-day she takes Morocco. Thus France and England are paving the way for Italy to take Tripoli. In order to have Italy disinterested as regards Morocco, France fosters her ambitions in Tripoli, and we owe to the republic all the trouble which may result with Italy. The Moroccan question has given Italy an appetite. . . . The new system of political combinations between two groups of nations, as between Germany and Russia at Potsdam, and France and Germany over Morocco, for the settling of special interests, is becoming fashionable. It is not surprising that in this general European movement of lust for land they do not hesitate even at the lowest and meanest ways, working against the independence of nations, and that in consequence the worst political injustices and most revolting abuses of power are possible. . . . But let Italy not make any mistakes, there is a long way between her dreams and their realization.

A day before the expiration of the Italian ultimatum, the *Jeune Turc*, in a Pan-Islamic article said:

All the world must know that Islam is not only a religion, a faith. It is also a social union, which embraces a sixth of humanity. . . . Turks, Berbers, Arabs, Slavs, Iranians, Mongols, Hindus, Chinese, Negroes and others, are socially unified, thanks to Islam.

On the day of the expiration of the Italian ultimatum, the same journal appealed to Germany and claimed that her friendship for Turkey was on trial:

We have foretold everything that has happened. It is a result of the Franco-German agreement over Morocco. . . . Here Germany and Austria-Hungary can play an important rôle. . . . Wilhelms-trasse must intervene to save us from humiliation and Italy from many grave complications. It is the trial of Germany's friendship. . . . Universal peace is much more important to Germany than the brutal satisfaction which her ally may draw from a very doubtful adventurous expedition to Tripoli.

On the day war was declared, the *Jeune Turc* said:

This time the countrymen of Machiavelli are mistaken. They have forgotten that they have to do not with some African tribe, but with a nation, which has seen more than once at her feet not only the Italians, but nations more powerful and glorious than they, and that the Turks have been tried by all the tests of glory and misfortune. The Turk

can put up with misfortune, but never with dishonor. . . . But if the Italians, as they now declare, use violence, they may remain assured that the Ottoman people will fight them by all means and to the last extremity. Once the powers enter this path of spoliation and of robbery, once no treaty, no right, is a guaranty, it is the end of ends. To-day Tripoli, to-morrow Syria, the day after to-morrow Yemen. Then Trebizond, Bassora, etc. The Ottoman people are determined to give an example of an end which history will always remember. . . . A Moslem country like Turkey does not disappear, without leaving after her a universal resounding and eternal echo.

On the day after the declaration the same journal had the following:

Italy opens a new era with this robbery. Turkey of to-day is not the Turkey of yesterday. Turkey is preparing. She may be crushed, even lost. But behind her, the calm of Europe will be only a vain word. Tripoli will save our world. Through it, that oppressed world will wake up! . . . In her full and entire "Renaissance" this Moslem world, which numbers 350,000,000 faithful, lives now for one ideal only; the conservation of her prestige. They cannot bear any disrespect to their center, their Caliphate. Let England understand this and sympathize with us. The Moslems have shown England that one word of their Caliph can make them rise or submit. One word from the Sultan in 1857, to India, and the revolt stopped, and England must know that these same Moslems will certainly be thankful to her if she does something for them.

Finally, even the United States is called upon for sympathy and understanding:

We should be glad to see the Americans intervene in these affairs, in which only Europe claims interest. Liberal America in the European concert would certainly be a salutary check to the imperialistic ambitions of some European governments. In the present case, American intervention—as when Roosevelt intervened in the Russian-Japanese War and obtained the Nobel prize—would crown definitively the pacific glory of this great nation.

Italy on the Eve of the Conflict

In the political review of the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) of the fortnight preceding the Italian ultimatum, the editor devoted several pages to the discussion of the probable effects of the Morocco agreement between Germany and France, and insists on the occupation of Tripoli as the only means for Italy to restore the balance of Mediterranean influence. In substance the editorial runs as follows:

France, mistress of Algeria, Tunis and Morocco, now acquires a decided preponderance of power in the Mediterranean, which she clasps from the French to the African coast—to say nothing of Corsica—in a mighty embrace. But what will be the attitude of the other powers before such

havoc played with the balance hitherto maintained in the Mediterranean? As for England, it does not seem probable that she should consent to the growth of power of her rival of yesterday—in spite of the entente cordiale that binds them now—and of her rival of to-day without obtaining a compensation in some form, and it would not be surprising if the apparent indifference of the London cabinet will be later explained by the fact that the compensation has already been fixed upon and there is certainty in London of obtaining it. But for Italy the question is graver. She has not only political interests in the Mediterranean like Great Britain, but she is the Mediterranean nation *par excellence*, and is not so powerful elsewhere, as is England, to be able to assist with indifference at the growth of power of the nation that in a more or less distant future may be her adversary. If to-morrow France should rule over the entire northern coast of Africa, not only would this cause added dangers for us in case of hostilities—which it is to be hoped may never take place—when France could attack us from the French and African coasts and from Corsica, but also in time of peace we should be seriously annoyed by our relegation to secondary rank as a Mediterranean power and loss of prestige. As well we should be bound in an iron girdle that would render any industrial and economic expansion of almost treble difficulty.

Every publicist recognizes the necessity of reëstablishing the balance of power by means of an action on our part in Tripolitania, but some maintain that this action should be limited to an economic penetration without embroiling our relations with Turkey and without embarking on any colonial adventure. But is this possible? Is it not evident that Turkey, who knows our aspirations in Tripoli and of course considers them with extreme suspicion, opposes in every way our expansion in the fear that expansion is the forerunner of occupation? Nearly all the Italian enterprises are systematically hindered by the Turkish authorities, but it would be puerile on our parts to blame the Sublime Porte for this action of national defense. But on the other hand, it is clear that the Turkish Government, already powerless at home, is still more incapable of civilizing Tripolitania and lifting her from her actual state of barbarism and anarchy. Italy, however, has to decide to give up all claims to this last remnant of African coast or to overcome with every means and to the last breath the hostility of Turkey. The task of our diplomacy will be to prepare the way in international diplomacy for our proposed action. When this shall have been accomplished, Turkey's opposition could not be formidable, since, although the Turkish army is well-trained and strong, the fleet is lacking to transport it to the African coast, where there are only a few thousand soldiers. Nor could Turkey's resistance last long in event of a firm neutrality of the great powers. We must realize, however, that the critical moment is upon us,—the most favorable that could arrive for us, and if allowed to escape will probably never again present itself.

"Tripoli of the Occident"

That the Italians themselves were not as unprepared for the declaration of war against Turkey as the public abroad is evi-

dent. This intention of preparing the path for hostilities is perhaps least disguised in the article by Signor Castellini in *L'Illustrazione Italiana* (Rome) of the middle of September. The title even assumes possession of Tripoli for the West. Says the writer:

At dawn the white walls of Tripoli rose out of the blue-gray mist. I know of many who have approached the dazzling Sultana of Barbary with an irresistible impulse to repeat the song of Giaufré, amorous pilgrim in quest of Melisenda, Countess of Tripoli. Another land, however, and another love. . . . The Crusader's ship moved toward Tripoli of Soria, Tripoli of the East. Our ship pointed toward Tripoli of Barbary. Tripoli of the West, Tarabulus ul Gharb, as the natives call it, is buried in a gigantic girdle of palms and gardens—the gardens of Mescija, the extreme edge of the oasis. From the sea Tripoli imposes upon the traveler as an ancient stronghold guarded by the castle of the Vali, as it did when it was a savage nest of sea robbers. But there, where the naval power of Sidi Dragut (still sung by the Maltese folk) held sway, a solitary cruiser sends up thin clouds of black smoke from its high smokestacks. The Arab quarters are grouped around the small white mosques with their mysterious courts closed to the profane, and around the suks, the wine shops of the East. The Jewish quarter circles in tortuous narrow streets around the synagogue. At every step one sees a courtyard through an open gate brilliant with the tiles that pave them all. . . . The European quarter? Europe, that is to say, Italy, is everywhere. Here the Royal Consulate and there the buildings of the Bank of Rome, but Italy has concentrated forces, perhaps in the new streets and regular buildings along the port, due to the activity of the Vali Regiel Pasha, the last of the old régime. Young Turkey is here too. Soldiers are passing along the quays, under the hugh mass of the Vali's castle, the ancient seat of the Caramanli princes, toward the market place out on the roads that this country without highways and railroads has inherited from Rome unchanged through twenty centuries. In Tunis, meanwhile, France has emulated Rome's sagacity.

In the city amidst the Arab and the Jewish streets stands the Roman Catholic Church. It is a holiday and from the nave, mothers and sons, fathers and young daughters, are crowding the little square. From the church tower one can see admirably the panorama of Tripoli. The flags flying from the consulates give Tarabulus ul Gharb the aspect of a hostile city watched by the European powers. During the long vigil, the young pioneers of Italy below, children of our colonists, wear our colors on their hats through the streets, and they tell you openly, "We are here to wait for the occupation by Italy!"

In the gardens of the officers' casino I saw a number of mutilated Roman statues collected from the neighborhood, and strolling among them the Turks with their narghilé sending up such clouds of smoke as to obscure the sea that washes the ancient coast of Latium. But Italy's colonists on their daily promenade by the port, with gaze grown dim with long fixity, still hope to see the faint curling smoke, the slender stack and then the graceful outline of Italy's warships—the Mother Country that arrives to conquer.

ITALY'S MERCHANT MARINE POLICY AND EXPANSION

THE difficulties awaiting Italy in the growing rivalry of the nations for sea commerce are discussed in a recent issue of *Nuova Antologia* by Senator Giovanni Goiran. The article was written some weeks before the outbreak of hostilities between that country and Turkey, and is particularly timely. It sets forth clearly the need for Italian commercial expansion, and points out that it is a question of now or never.

Senator Goiran draws our attention at the outset to three great changes since Venetian and Genoese galleys ruled the world's maritime trade. The first is the increased power and culture of the other European states and the rapid development of minor nations like those in the Balkans, as well as the English, French, and German monopolies, or protectorates, in Africa and Asia. The second change lies in the vastness of the field for operations in American, South African, Australian, and Southern and Eastern Asian ports opened by the Suez Canal; and the third is the increased rapidity of communication.

Senator Goiran insists on the need of a vigorous policy of financial and political support by the government of its merchant marine before it be too late. That the government has been hitherto handicapped by financial crises, by the railroad problem, and latterly by the socialistic and peace propaganda Senator Goiran admits, but urges that the great general interests of his country be not sacrificed to the relative advantages for which the laboring classes are clamoring. The struggle of the classes in Italy has increased the cost of living, paralyzed the industrial class by rendering uncertain the fulfillment of their obligations, and, above all, his increased the difficulty of international competition, and is responsible for the decline of export, and the almost incredible growth of German trade. As for the universal-peace theory, the nation that first adopts it alone would make a dangerous experiment. Owing to a widespread anti-militarism in Italian political circles, Italy to-day spends relatively less on her army and navy than Switzerland, where every citizen can reach his designated post in twenty-four hours.

The imminent opening of the Panama Canal will be of far more advantage to Spain than to Italy, in that the Pacific coast of Spanish America will be much nearer to the mother country, and her emigration

will naturally be directed towards the states similar in origin, language, and customs. On the other hand, the Italian element in South America is absorbed almost immediately by the Spanish-American society, and one generation is sufficient to obliterate all differences. This is unfortunately due to Italy's lack of energy in binding her sons to her in foreign lands.

What France has accomplished in Tunis, England has done in Egypt, and, as mistress of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, she may justly claim to control the Mediterranean. Syria and Anatolia are nominally Turkish, but Jews, Greeks, French, English, and, above all, Germans market their wares and exploit the local industries. The limitation of Italy's action in this sphere will be inevitable if she does not speedily prepare herself to compete with the greater rivals. As for the states of the lower Danube and the Balkan peninsula, it is natural that in the tranquillity of their position they should speedily develop agriculturally and industrially, consolidate their land and sea forces, and establish great centers of production and consumption capable of supporting extended traffic. The ports of Vallona, Durazzo, Piræus, Salonica, Constantinople, and Varna will be the purveyors of the 250,000,000 inhabitants of Central and Eastern Europe. This intense commercial life and economic bond cannot fail to approach politically the central countries and the lower Danube and the Balkans. This union would be consummated more rapidly and with greater peril to Italy's trade chances if it were not for the diversity of race of the Servians, Bulgarians, Roumanians, Greeks, and Albanians, so long violently held together by the Turkish yoke. As the Balkan states have an area almost double that of Italy, with but one-third the latter's population, they consequently are capable of much greater development than Italy, and will eventually become her greatest competitors.

The Italian peninsula, then, by its geographical position between the Tyrrhenian and the Adriatic seas, lies with the Algerian ports, Tunis, and southern France on one side and the seaboard cities of Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Greece on the other. This situation is inevitable and its dangers evident, but the chances for Italy will be irretrievably lost if she does not intensify all her energies in the commercial marine and

invigorate her foreign policy. The medieval tradition must be renewed when Genoa, Venice, Pisa, and Amalfi had banks and agencies throughout the Orient. A well-equipped line of steamers must offer swiftness, regularity of departure and arrival, and moderate rates. Italian manufacturers, by the value of the products, by the honesty and punctuality of the consignors, must create a demand, an assured patronage. To satisfy these imperative needs, private initiative is not sufficient, but the immediate,

energetic, and liberal assistance of the government is required. Only with this immediate and energetic support from the government can Italy hope to sustain with honor the struggle for pacific conquest of the Mediterranean marts.

Since the publication of Senator Goiran's article in the *Nuova Antologia*, the Italian Government has seen fit to resort to measures which can hardly be called "pacific," looking toward absolute control in the Turkish protectorate of Tripoli.

CHINA'S VIOLATION OF THE "OPEN DOOR"

AMERICAN manufacturers have been complaining for some time of their inability to secure a firm footing in the markets of China, or indeed, in some trades, to gain any foothold whatsoever. American cotton goods, which before the Russo-Japanese war held first place in Manchuria, have given place to Japanese products and American flour and other staples have had to succumb to the competition of the native mills. In neither of these cases does it appear to have been proved that the competition was other than legitimate, or that any unfair practices were resorted to. So much cannot be said in respect to the experience of American manufactures of machinery and railway material in the Chinese market. Many American firms have spent considerable time and money in trying to develop a market, without results; and they do not hesitate to assert that there is no hope of a square deal in the awarding of railways tenders in China; their bids, even when lowest in price, being invariably rejected on the ground of inferiority, although their goods are equal in quality with those of the successful bidders. In the *Far Eastern Review* (Manila and Shanghai), Mr. George Bronson Rea, the publisher of that magazine, gives an exposition of the real cause of the present conditions; and in the early part of his article he says:

I propose to prove conclusively by a résumé of the various agreements that the spirit of fair play, or the principles underlying the Open Door doctrine, incorporated in foreign railway loan agreements, has been contemptuously ignored and rejected by the country whose political independence hinges on its faithful application.

Mr. Rea quotes from the actual text of several loan agreements under the provisions of which sundry Chinese lines were constructed. In each case the language is

specific, admitting of no misinterpretation. No preference is given to the materials of any one nation; but it is clearly implied that they shall be obtained *from foreign countries*. In the Peking-New-chwang loan agreement of April 29, 1902, for instance, clause 2 reads:

All rolling stock, materials, etc., obtained from foreign countries for the use of the railways shall as far as possible be purchased by means of public tenders.

This clause was ignored immediately after the signing of the agreement, and an arrangement was entered into whereby all materials are purchased through a firm in London acting as agents. Then again, the chances of Americans to compete successfully were injured by the opening of Chinese car-building-shops.

In the case of the Tien-Tsin-Pukow Railway tenders for eight locomotives duly advertised in advance were opened on the 29th June, 1909, and although the American tenders were lowest, the contract for six was awarded to a British manufacturer, and only two ordered from the lowest bidder.

In another case the American manufacturers bid strictly to specifications, yet, although they were nearly £300 (\$1,500) lower in price on each engine, the contract was awarded to British makers.

On the 20th of May last an agreement was entered into between the Imperial Government of China, of the one part, and the Deutsche-Asiatische Bank, the Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Banque de l'Indo-Chine, and the American group (J. P. Morgan & Co., Kuhn, Loeb & Co., the First National Bank, and the National City Bank, all of New York), of the other part, for the loan of six million pounds sterling (\$30,000,000) for the con-



H. CORDES E. G. HILLER M. CASENAVE W. D. STRAIGHT
 (Deutsche-Asiatische Bank) (Hongkong & Shanghai Bank) (Banque de l'Indo-Chine) (American Group)

THE PEKING REPRESENTATIVES OF THE FOUR FINANCIAL GROUPS

struction of the Hupei-Hunan Section of the Canton-Hankow line and of the Hupei section of the Szechuen-Hankow railway. Clause 18 of this agreement concedes to the British and Chinese corporations and the Deutsche-Asiatische Bank the exclusive purchasing rights for the entire system. It was subsequently agreed between the representatives of the four groups that "proper provision should be made for the receipt, on an absolute basis of equality, of tenders from British, German, French, and American manufacturers." This, says, Mr. Rea, is "China's last opportunity to prove her good faith."

The engineer of each loan-built railway has in the past been a law unto himself, and set his own standards and drew up his own specifications, and then when competition was admitted at all, it was restricted to a list of makers approved by himself.

The Chinese Government has placidly refrained from interfering in such practices, and the consequence is, that to-day after an expenditure of over \$120,000,000 gold, there is no co-relation between the systems, inter change of cars or through traffic is almost impossible, and sooner or later the enormous outlay for her ill assorted collections of rolling stock will be wasted, and the lines equipped anew.

The time has arrived when China must face the situation and assert her authority. The Minister of Posts and Communications by further delay in authorizing a set of national standards, is piling up

future trouble for his country, and holding open the door for further corruption and discrimination.

It is the only solution to a fair deal that will relieve China from the charge of evading the Open Door doctrine. If a committee of broad-minded foreign engineers, one Continental, one

British and one American, together with a Chinese of the standing of Jeme Tien Yu, were appointed to devise a set of standards for Chinese railways, it would solve the question. Then when future railways are to be constructed, all manufacturers will know exactly what will be required.

A FRENCH MISSIONARY'S VIEWS ON CHINA

WE have heard much of the rapid development of China's interior resources, the strengthening of her land and sea forces, and the modernization of her system of public education. Now Mgr. de Guébriant, the Apostolic Vicar of Kientchang, who has spent twenty-five years in the remotest province of the Celestial Empire, asserts that reformed and Europeanized China is unfortunately, until now, a mere fiction, although the Chinese people, as badly governed as it is possible for any people to be, merit all esteem, sympathy, and aid in their evolution. Mgr. de Guébriant, in the *Correspondant* (Paris), praises the Chinese as the best of non-Christian nations, as industrious, sober, and peaceable, respectful of authority in the family and the state; and citing the abolition of the opium traffic as a remarkable instance of public disinterestedness, he concludes that the Chinese possess all the qualities needed to encourage the most optimistic forecast for them. But the results of the reforms under-

taken in the past ten years have been practically *nil*.

Every European resident in China and the Chinese themselves, when not speaking for the gallery, will confirm this impression. The reforms must be begun again from the very start. The recent reconciliation of Russia and Japan shows how little practical importance these two well-informed powers attach to the progress hitherto realized in China. It is the resurrection of the sphere-of-influence policy after ten years' eclipse, and the reports rise since that reconciliation in all the Chinese Empire of an impending partition among Europeans, which show how little confidence the Chinese themselves have in their real strength or in their present ability to cope with aggression. Granting, then, that nothing has been accomplished, let us review the chief evils of the terribly degenerated administrative system. Through confining their studies to the traditional literary course, the Chinese have lost all idea of specialization and no longer conceive of any division of their mandarins except the division of their provinces. The viceroy is king in his province, the prefect is equally king in his prefecture, as is the sub-prefect. Within the limits of a more or less vast territory one man's abilities must suffice for supreme appeal and local justice, territorial defence, police, finance, trade, agriculture



THE HARBOR OF HANKOW

and public works, eventually for international relations and, indeed, for anything that may transpire during his rule. If, at least, the official would remain some time at his post, he could grow interested, adapt himself to its special needs and accomplish some good. But to render his task altogether impossible, he is changed frequently. In the province of Sze-Chuen, where I have lived for twenty-six years, I do not believe the average stay of the sub-prefects would reach eighteen months. In the town where I live, Ningyuenfou, on the marches of the empire, the present prefect arrived in the first week of 1909, transferred suddenly from Manchuria, and was obliged to improvise solutions to some very delicate and peculiar problems to be adjusted between the Chinese and the Lolos. That, under these conditions, the old edifice stands upright is miraculous enough, not to speak of progress. During his few months' sojourn the mandarin's sole preoccupation can only be to recover the expense his post has put him to and to gain a little additional. The fear of accusations which, coming from influential personages, might cause his premature removal and consequent ruin, is about the only check to his power, precarious but absolute. Venality, favoritism, corruption is found at every round of the administrative ladder, from the regent who sold the viceroyalty of Canton for \$800,000 to the humblest sub-prefect. For modern reform, the government lacks ideas, method, and confidence. Their weakness irritates and humiliates the Chinese. The national pride does not allow them to recognize the true cause of it and they cast the blame on the foreigners. This is the real reason for the spread of the feeling, "China for the Chinese."

Will China revolve eternally in this deceiving circle? Left to herself it is not easy to calculate the time it will take her to leave it, and will the world have patience enough to wait? To extract her from the present chaos, so charged with menace for civilization at large, imminent action from without seems of extreme necessity. The only possible conceivable form for an efficacious intervention is that already proposed by men versed in China's needs through long experience—a powerful international financial combination. This would be the only way to cut short the exploitation of the European divisions by China and to bring about the normal and pacific development of the great Empire by rational methods. America and Japan would, of course, be of the number of shareholders in this enterprise, and the choice of the force of financiers, engineers, and employees would be equally distributed among the nations.

In this multiple effort of intelligent European capital there must be care not to interfere with Chinese autonomy. In exchange for security, the international society would aid the Chinese Government in a practical undertaking which would insure also reasonable profits to the financiers themselves.

SIR ROBERT HART, THE IRISHMAN WHO RULED CHINA

DURING the half century just past, it was an Irishman who did more than any other one man toward making the Chinese Empire a modern going concern. Sir Robert Hart, who died on September 20, at the age of 76, Inspector-General of Customs and Ports in China since 1863, practically built up from its beginnings the Chinese customs service, kept it on a business basis, and watched it solicitously during forty-five years.

Sir Robert Hart was the exact opposite of the type of administrator that modern imperialism has made fashionable. In a character sketch appearing in the London *Daily News*, by one of his intimate friends and associates, this point is thus commented upon:

Remoteness, insistence upon superiority, philanthropy without love or understanding, trust in the iron hand of military power—these are marks of the orthodox representative of imperialism among subjects of another color or race. It may be that these characteristics make the substance of popular verse or magazine stories, but there can be little doubt that the school of which Sir Robert

Hart was the most eminent representative makes the most successful rulers. It is lack of the qualities which distinguished him which lies pretty near the root of the difficulties of British rule in Egypt and in India and the blunders of British policy in Turkey and Persia.

Few men, says a writer in the *Westminster Review*, have had greater honors showered upon them, both by their own native country and by other powers.

Few men, also, could have better deserved such distinctions. For, combined with the greatest capacity for controlling and organizing an important department of state, were found in him qualities of unimpeachable honesty, rare common sense, a wide outlook on affairs, and that judgment of men and character without which no success would have been possible in his difficult tasks. His very belief in China and the Chinese, although, as we have seen, it now and again led him into tragic disappointments, was an enormous strength to the man whose business it was to inspire the world with his own trust in the commercial virtues of an eastern race. With a faith like that which belonged to Sir Robert Hart, a man can move mountains—even such hoary fast-

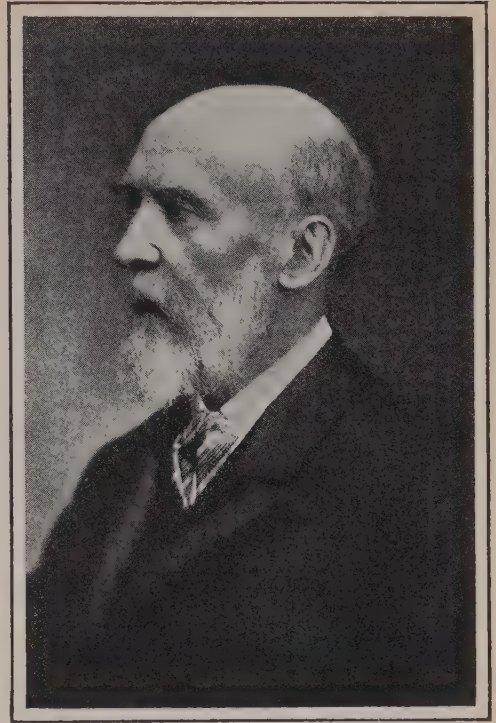
nesses of internal corruption and extortionate cruelty as have for centuries environed the Land on Sinim.

Sir Robert looked forward to the time when China would be one of the most formidable military nations of the world, not because this was their natural ambition or inclination, but because the position would be forced upon them. He was fond of quoting the words uttered to him forty years ago by one of China's most famous statesmen, Wen Hsiang:

You are all too anxious to awake us and start us on a new road, and you will do it. But you will regret it; for, once awake and started, we will go further than you think, much further than you want.

In the result, was Sir Robert's conclusion, China might well be rendered impossible for outsiders, for the Chinese would be strong enough to expel all foreigners from their borders, and to keep their own strange country entirely to themselves. As to their good qualities, he wrote:

The Chinese possess quite as large a share as others of admirable qualities. They are well-behaved, law-abiding, intelligent, economical, and industrious; they are punctiliously polite; they worship talent, and they believe in right so firmly that they scorn to think that it requires to be supported and enforced by might. They are generous, charitable, and fond of good works; they never forget a favor, they make rich return for any kindness, they are wonderfully gifted with common sense, and in no country has the commandment, "Honor thy father and thy mother," been so religiously obeyed. In no other country is education so honored, so prized, so utilized, and so rewarded. . . . Voluminous encyclopædias and



THE LATE SIR ROBERT HART

dictionaries were published and republished ages before Dr. Johnson appeared or the French "Academy" was heard of.

"While the whole civilized world united in praise of Sir Robert Hart, it was with peculiar pride that we in the North of Ireland reflected that he was one of ourselves—an Ulsterman born and bred," says the *Northern Whig*.

KOKOV TZOV—THE NEW RUSSIAN PREMIER

SINCE the assassination of Stolypin those interested in Russian affairs and in humane problems in general, have been curious to know whether the appointment of Kokovtsov as Prime Minister of the Russian Empire will bring about any change in the policy of the Russian government, and whether this change will be for the better, or whether the policy may become even more reactionary than it has been during the last five years. With this question in view it will be interesting to investigate the personality and career of the new premier, in order to be able to draw some conclusion about the future.

The well-informed European dailies, the *Neue Freie Presse*, of Vienna, the London

Times, the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, and the *Berliner Tageblatt*, are unanimous in the opinion that Kokovtsov is a modern thinking statesman, accustomed to lend an ear to the judgment of Europe, as expressed in the language of figures, familiar to him in his dealings with the Western money markets. He knows how much the credit of the Empire depends on internal conditions and how important it is to convince the world that the era of unrest has ended and an era of quiet work begun. Stolypin crushed the revolution with force, but under him the reactionary nationalistic party has pushed itself to the front with craven self-consciousness, and it is quite obvious that its victory



VLADIMIR KOKOVTSOV, THE NEW RUSSIAN PREMIER,
WHO LAST MONTH SUCCEEDED THE
LATE DR. STOLYPIN

would be the death of every reform in progress-seeking Russia.

The ukase appointing Kokovtsov Premier with the portfolio of finance was issued on September 22. The *Novoye Vremya* and the *Ryech*, commenting on the appointment from opposite points of view, come to a similar conclusion,—namely, that the new Premier is “opposed to any cataclysmical changes of policy.” The liberal Moscow daily, *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, says:

Kokovtsov is much older than his predecessor and has a large experience in various branches of administration. In 1896, after the resignation of Antonovitch, Minister of Finance, Witte chose him as his assistant, which post he held for six years and distinguished himself in the reorganization of our monetary system, the introduction of the whiskey monopoly and in other important enterprises of the financial department. As Minister of Finance, Kokovtsov had many dealings with the Duma and its committees, and he was generally on friendly terms with the parliament, although he was an adherent of the policy of limiting its rights. Notwithstanding his well-known phrase: “Thank God we have no parliament,” he did not oppose the Duma in the passing of a law to build new private railroads with a guaranty from the treasury and in other important cases. But he very energetically fought against the Duma’s interference in the budget. There is no reason to speak of Kokovtsov as a Liberal. Nevertheless the reactionaries objected even last spring to his candidacy to the post of Prime Minister. Even now, the Nationalists look with disfavor upon his appointment. The reactionaries would probably not have much against Kokovtsov’s premiership if he were not also Minister of Finance.

In this position he can hardly ignore completely the public opinion of Western Europe and even of Russia, and can hardly light-heartedly sacrifice the economic and cultural interests for considerations of administrative or police nature.

Kokovtsov is a descendant of a Russian noble family whose ancestors are first mentioned as estate-holders in the beginning of the seventeenth century. He was born in 1847, in the province of Yaroslav, and received his education in the Alexandrovski Lyceum. He served for a time as assistant superintendent of the Department of Prisons; he then became assistant secretary of the Council of the Empire. Later he was promoted to the rank of State Secretary and Assistant Minister of Finance. Here he tried to carry out the financial plans and policies laid down by his predecessor, Count Witte.

He succeeded in raising the greatest loan Russia ever floated, but was much criticized by Russian economists for the unfavorable conditions under which this loan was secured.

However, notwithstanding the immense amount of commission which was paid (out of a loan of 843 million rubles, the Russian government received, after the deduction of “expenses,” only 677 million rubles), Russia’s credit seems to have been fairly good and business has in the last three or four years considerably improved. Whether the honor of restoring the credit of Russia after the war in the Far East and the revolution was really due to him, as the *London Times* seems to believe, is hard to determine. Russia’s “agreement” with England, the good will of the European bankers and the good crops of the past few years, says Mr. Herman Rosenthal, an American authority on Russian affairs, who has furnished us with the data upon which this article is based, may also have had something to do with the improvement of Russia’s business and credit during the past few months.

According to a statement in the semi-official journal, the *Rossiya* “the Kiev assassination [of Stolypin] will not result in an increase of absolutism, and the rumors to the contrary are spread in order to create uneasiness in the public mind.” In commenting upon this declaration of Kokovtsov’s policy the *Neue Freie Presse* comes to the conclusion that the new Premier considered it important that the intelligent classes or partisans of the constitution should “put their minds at ease and not fear the threats and machinations of the reactionaries.” The reactionaries who forced Stolypin in the latter part of his activity to give a larger scope to the

policy of repression than he had originally intended, tried to make capital out of his death, although they now have "good reason to be ashamed and keep quiet." To this system Kokovtsov will put an end, as far as it will be in his power to do so. His public separation from the reactionaries forbodes a milder policy which will be useful for the realization of what Stolypin had declared to be his program; namely the re-establishment of order in a constitutional way.

All these fair promises may be borne out by deeds, but, says Mr. Rosenthal, from whom we have already quoted, in Russia, the "land of riddles," the personal qualities of a Prime Minister can hardly shape or determine the future policy of the empire.

When, after the dissolution of the first Duma, on July 21, 1906, Stolypin was appointed Prime Minister to succeed Goremykin, he was considered to be a more moderate, even liberal, minister, of

whom it was expected that he would, as he had repeatedly promised, carry out the most needed reforms. But the last five years have shown to the world that his policy had been even more reactionary than the terrible rule of Plehve. The question is, therefore, whether Kokovtsov will have the power to curb the reactionary party. That this party will oppose him is already evident. Stolypin soon became a tool in the hands of the reactionary party, known as the "True Russians," a group which is under the direct protection of the Czar and the courtiers. In carrying out its cruel policy Stolypin intensified the oppression of the non-Russian elements of the Empire—Jews, Poles and Finns. If Kokovtsov, as it has been surmised, will try to introduce a more liberal policy, the question arises how this policy will be received by the courtiers and the reactionaries with whom the Czar is in full sympathy. The hope for a new era in Russia lies in the fact that the policy of the "hermaphrodite nature of the Russian government in combining formal constitutionalism with the worst traditions of a police state" could not last much longer, even if the removal of Stolypin had not been forcibly accomplished by the bullet of an assassin.

STOLYPIN'S TRIBUTE TO POLISH CULTURE

RUSSIA is awakening to the fact that to try to stamp out a people or to prevent the spreading of its culture, if it possesses one worthy of the name, is something of a task. It is beginning to realize that so far as the Polish provinces under its domination are concerned, all its efforts at Russification have proven futile. M. S. Skarzynski, in a recent issue of the *Revue des Français* (Paris) points out that, but a short time ago, the late Stolypin, President of the Imperial Council, said to the Duma in extenuation of the proposed laws concerning the Zemstvos in the Polish Provinces, when these were under consideration:

The Poles, first masters of these provinces, although deprived of the right to govern them, have, nevertheless, retained their wealth, their culture, and their traditions, which assure their domination. Numerically, they are said to represent but four per cent. of our population, but it often happens that one man of strong personality or great wealth, whether in a community, a state, or even a country, grasps the direction of affairs and becomes a power. It is especially true where no counter influence or force of concentration is to be found. Thus it is that in our western provinces the Poles are the influential men. Every movement in these provinces is dominated by their political force, everyone falls under it irresistibly.

Commenting upon the solidarity which distinguishes the Poles, M. Stolypin said further:

Why do we always see the Poles grouped in a body in every institution where general interests

are at stake? Why are they not scattered among the different factions of the Duma and Imperial Council? Why do they always stand isolated in a single national circle? Simply because they have been tried and proved in national disasters. Because they stand as one man in their proud and insistent protesting, and lastly because they belong to a nation that possesses but one ideal and that is—Patria!

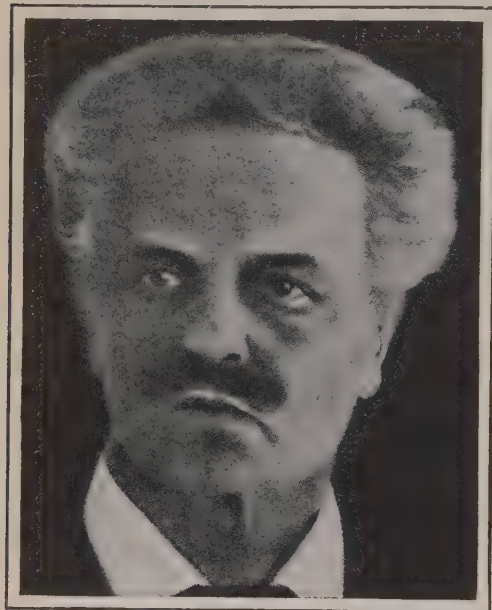
Since the utterance of the above words, continues M. Skarzynski, many of the leading representatives of the Russian press have said much the same thing. He quotes from the *Moskovski Vedomosti* the following:

The Polish question is like the Gordian knot. . . . It is a falsehood to say that Poland has ceased to exist, and that there remains only a small territory on the banks of the Vistula which we must finish Russifying at any cost. The reality is a very different thing. . . . The Russification of Poland has produced absolutely nothing. It never had the ghost of a chance nor ever will. Polish spirit and Polish culture have made, in the past, extraordinary conquests. Can one seriously maintain that it is possible to annul the existence of twenty million people who have behind them a great and glorious history, their literature and their fine arts, and who shine with a spirit of sublime patriotism? . . . It is simply impossible!

M. Skarzynski says, in conclusion, that, in the face of such admission, it behooves Russia to raise the level of its own culture, and to begin to apply the principle of modern liberty in its government, if it would attempt to equalize and distance the influence of Polish culture.

SWEDEN'S FUTURE GOVERNMENT: MONOPLANE OR BIPLANE?

AUGUST STRINDBERG, the brilliant Swedish historian and essayist, as a novelist has repeatedly inveighed against the zest for social experiment that characterized the Scandinavians of yesterday. His own intense modernity is curiously veined with



AUGUST STRINDBERG

a silvery Swedenborgianism little in keeping with the real man, who is a hewer of idols, impatient of compromise and eager for immediate practical results. That Strindberg's "Monoplane or Biplane?" article in *Pan* (Berlin) would not shrink from the last consequences of the parallel was to be expected and to them the opening sentences proceed with true Strindbergian directness.

The constitutional monarchy is an old-fashioned airship with superfluous decks, complicated machinery, and too many out-flyers. But in her modernized simplified form she is a biplane. The upper deck—King, government, provincial rule—presses heavily down on the lower deck—the community, local legislature, and Parliament. Try to take the upper deck away and see if the machine does not move more easily—as well if not better. As far up as the Parliament it is easy to conceive of popular election, but it seems more difficult to think of a government directly chosen by the people. If we examine the matter closely, there are all the commissions with their great authority, particularly the Committee on the Constitution composed of men born to censorship. And the Legal Committee is nearly our lawmaker, even

if the law-making power with us is "wisely slow to action but firm and strong in resistance," as the witty Jacobin Hans Järta and the gay poet Valerius expressed themselves in the famous draft of the constitution that was drawn up in one night (probably beside a mighty punch bowl).

The biplane system in our constitution has shown itself exactly that—strong in resistance. But every progressive movement is the overcoming of resistance. Sweep away then the resistance that is met with in the Royal Council of State and the Supreme Court.

The same constitutional draft tells us that the state authorities "support each other." With a mutual and well-balanced support of the decks the machine stands still, and our biplane government does that, too. But we have the monoplane in a sketch so that one needs only to throw off the upper deck to fly over the canal. How then, without a violent overthrow, without unnecessary novelties, could a state for the people be built up on the existing foundations? First, the people, then a law-making parliament without committees, and with an executive council of department chiefs, judges, then provincial governors, a local legislature and municipalities. The government is here not twofold, but the department chiefs elected for three years replace the abolished committees. And ministers are entirely out of the question under this governmental plan.

The state government that has now "its central point in the King in the state council" would have a firmer central point in the executive council, particularly as kings have ceased to execute the constitutional functions as well as to reign absolutely. The judges who under the monarchy consider themselves a small, independent state would become less separated from the nation, as a too independent judicial corps is perhaps a danger, and a class of lawyers with their practiced tongues might assume an undue political power, as in the French Republic. If the Civil Law Code was taught in the public schools, we should need no lawyers and few judges. This state sprung from the soil would be an up-right tree, and if we won such a state we should care for it and see that no excrescence grows on its bark, as aristocracy that takes the form of public servant only to rule. The majority of the aristocracy of title to-day are pure humbugs; really worthy men are bent in spite of their wealth on ennobling themselves by fitting out an expedition or endowing a charity.

But the aristocracy of wealth can be curbed by progressive income taxes and by taking away the right of inheritance. To take away the right of inheritance would be thoroughly Christian, for it would be a salutary admonition not to build eternal huts in this vale of tears where we are only passing guests. The children of the rich would not then degenerate as now in the reliance on an income not obtained by their own toil. An official aristocracy would be impossible where all would be elected for short periods. The aristocracy of learning remains. That would be abolished by the establishment of a common school for all. As for the upper examinations: none of the examiners themselves could pass them if the students assailed them with questions from all the subjects. Therefore the examining professors look like sphinxes as

long as the examination lasts. In the people's state all the crown lands would become national property. As these would then belong to all, they must of course be divided among the needy and with an equipment of tools and a lodging, tax-free as long as the ground was tilled. The peasants could marry early, the children of the small farmers would stay in the country and the overflow of population to the cities with the consequent decrease of wages would stop.

A second consequence would be the natural rise of wage for the factory workmen, and the decline of the mania to manufacture useless articles only to gain money. When Germany became an industrial nation and manufactured so much trash, the colonial question arose. Savages had to be conquered so that printed cotton, false beads, bad pocket knives, and nickel watches without nickel, and useless in eight days, could be traded off to them. On this heap of rubbish the industrial state is built up. A people's state must stand on

firmer foundation—the earth. That sounds harsh, for it demands manual labor, but the farmer celebrates his hardest work as festivals—haying time and harvest. And in winter he rests as the tools, the boats and the earth. There are people who strive for the state of drones! And still work, trouble, even worry are the only things that give life interest, the mealtime relish, repose to sleep and zest to pleasure. Whence springs this striving for a labor-free income? From the desire for social consideration although undeserved, from the desire to rule and to tread upon others (which are identical), the striving for a false height, that is only the inverted mirage of a swamp pool. To climb up a greased pole to get a cookie! That is too much pains for too little reward, and the added jeers of the mob if one falls down!

The monarchy as a biplane is unwieldy, unpractical, costly; like a library composed of duplicates. To the cellar with the duplicates! Away with the upper deck!

WILL BRITAIN GIVE SIERRA LEONE TO FRANCE?

WHILE France and Germany are disposing of Morocco, and Italy is taking Tripoli from the Turks, a good deal of apprehension is being expressed by the few periodicals of Sierra Leone, Britain's West African possession, at the report that the British trading settlements on the River Gambia and part of the Sierra Leone Protectorate are about to be handed over to France in exchange for French territory elsewhere. It was not known what the compensation would be, but among the French concessions mentioned was the Island of Madagascar. That the Gambia settlement would eventually become French has long been foreseen, though the proposed cession in 1875 fell through, owing to the vigorous opposition of a very influential committee in London. A conservative government was in power at the time with Lord Carnarvon at the head of the Colonial Office, and the representations of the philanthropic societies and various commercial bodies were effective in averting the cession. The extent of territory involved was small, only some 2800 square miles, with a population of about 200,000, but what gave it value at that time was that the river had uninterrupted navigation for moderate-sized vessels, for over three hundred miles from its mouth, up to a place called Yabutenda which became an *entrepot* for traders coming from the countries of the upper Senegal and Niger rivers. It was from this point that the celebrated African traveler, Mungo Park, took his departure in 1805, when he started on his second voyage of discovery into the interior which ended fatally.

Since the construction of the French railway to Bammak on the Niger from the Senegal, however, much of the trade that formerly came down to the Gambia has taken the Senegal route, and there are no longer the same material reasons for the retention of the settlements by England; and the French administration of the territory that surrounds them on all sides is of so progressive and beneficial a character that the change would not be likely to involve other than sentimental regrets. As regards Sierra Leone there is reason to doubt the report of a cession of more than some portion of the hinterland of the Protectorate; for the *embouchure* of the Sierra Leone River with the natural conformation of the country on the south side of it on which the capital, Freetown, is situated, has such advantages that, in spite of its unhealthiness in the past, it is now one of the important naval stations of the British Empire on the Atlantic trade route between Europe and South Africa.

Known for a long time after its settlement as the "White Man's Grave," drainage and hygiene improvements have reduced the dangers of residence to the European constitution to such an extent that it has been made a station for white troops. Freetown is also the terminal of a railway into the hinterland, where rubber and cotton cultivation are being developed with much promise of success. Eventually it is possible that Liberia, which lies alongside of Sierra Leone, to the southeast, might enter into some kind of federation with it. There would be many advantages to both in such a union, not the least of which would



A TYPICAL STREET IN FREETOWN, SIERRA LEONE

be the preservation of Liberia from the nibbling encroachments of the French on the north and east borders. The best means of promoting this would be the extension of the

Sierra Leone hinterland railway into the Liberian territory, and so developing the economic resources of both as a preliminary to political union.

CENTENARY CELEBRATIONS IN PARAGUAY AND VENEZUELA

PARAGUAY and Venezuela have been so frequently associated in the public mind with wars and revolutions that it seems strange to read of their celebrating within their respective borders the victories of peace. It is customary to speak of these two republics as "young"; yet both of them have passed the century-mark, Paraguay having attained her hundredth birthday on May 14 of this present year, and Venezuela extending her celebration over a whole month, June 24 to July 24, with July 5 as the central date, as on that day in 1811 her declaration of independence was signed. The *Bulletin* of the Pan-American Union prefixes to its account of the Paraguayan festivities a résumé of the history of that republic, which in substance is as follows:

Paraguay was settled slowly, and the Indian inhabitants of the country were so numerous that its natural agricultural development always remained in their hands with relatively small migration from without. At first the region was attached to Peru. When the viceroyalty of Buenos Aires was established (1776) and subdivided into

eight *intendencias*, Paraguay became one of them, under a lieutenant-governor from Buenos Aires. Somewhat before the Argentine declaration of independence three parties had developed in Paraguay—(1) those who wished to be let alone and who desired to strengthen their local self-government; (2) those who would attach themselves to Buenos Aires; and (3) those who had a strong desire for absolute and national independence. The last two had the common purpose of overthrowing the Spanish governor. Plans for a revolution were prepared; and May 14, 1811, was the date fixed by the plotters. At 10 o'clock in the evening the signal—a sudden and violent ringing of the cathedral bells—was followed by the seizure of the Government barracks. The people were in sympathy with the conspirators; the troops made no resistance; and the power of Spain was destroyed without a struggle or the shedding of a drop of blood. The Governor at first offered a feeble resistance to the authority of the leaders; but on the next day, May 15, he acknowledged their victory. Thus Paraguay regards May 14 as her birthday.

An entire week, May 13 to May 20, 1911, was devoted to the centenary exercises, the whole country giving itself up to holiday-making.

Nationalism was the essence and spirit of the ceremonies. . . . The occasion was one rather of rejoicing and hopefulness than of retrospect and memorials, careful attention being given to impress upon all citizens, and especially upon the pupils of the schools, that a love of country was the key of liberty. . . . The week was busy with processions, some of flowers, some of the army or other military organizations, some of allegorical presentations. All these the people enjoyed to the utmost; and as they were carried over to the evening exercises, the streets of the capital were gay and lively at all hours of the day and night.

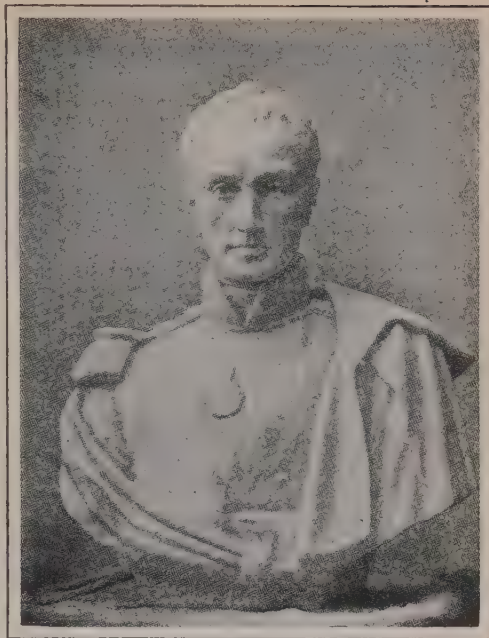
Besides a round of private and public receptions and social gatherings, it was thought proper that, "as youth and activity were the motif of the week, one of the principal events of the celebration should be a series of Olympic games, to show how the young people of the republic were preparing themselves physically for their future responsibilities." The serious side of the centenary was not overlooked; and every attempt was made to urge upon the people the value of progressive citizenship. Paraguay "is determined to develop its opportunities; and the coming century of independence will show how much of material benefit the Republic can offer to mankind."

How the Venezuelans celebrated their centennial, says the *Bulletin*, is well worth recording.

There was a happy combination of reverence and devotion to the past, of substantial acknowledgment of the accomplishment of the present, and of foundations for both intellectual and material activity in the future. . . . The formal program prepared by the Government for the people was delightfully supplemented by many social functions in which all could participate.

The large number of special guests of the nation included, besides representatives of the other Latin-American republics, visitors from Belgium, Italy, Germany, Spain, and the United States.

Venezuela is the fatherland of Bolivar, whom Henry Clay called "the Washington of South America." It was fitting, therefore, that the first formal act of the celebration should be the inauguration of the Bolivar Memorial Museum in Caracas, on June 24, the anniversary of the battle of Carabobo, where Bolivar, Páez, Cedeño, and Plaza won the final victory which decided the independence of Venezuela. In the afternoon of the same day the Exposition of Fine Arts at Caracas was opened; and in the evening the first Venezuelan Congress of Medicine was inaugurated. During the celebration several busts, monuments, and statues were un-



BUST OF SIMON BOLIVAR RECENTLY PRESENTED BY VENEZUELA TO THE PAN-AMERICAN UNION

veiled. One among them, which illustrates a very romantic episode in history, was a monument to Antonio Ricaurte, the young hero who was killed at San Mateo, March 25, 1814, in his twenty-second year.

Above the village is a hill on which was a house, turned into a fortress at the time, and there the little army under Ricaurte seemed doomed. He, however, commanding his men to escape down the hill, waited alone on the summit until surrounded by the Spanish soldiers, and then dropped a lighted cigar into the store of gunpowder at his side, thus blowing the enemy, and himself with them, to atoms, but saving his own men for further usefulness in the field.

Until the celebration, the nation's Chief Executive had been without an official residence. The Government arranged for the purchase of the splendid mansion known as Miraflores, one of the handsomest in Caracas, and on July 4, 1911, it was turned over to the President of the Republic for his use.

One noteworthy feature of the celebration was the receipt by the Government of several gifts of public memorials from foreign countries. Thus the Syrian colony presented a statue dedicated to Bolivar; the people of Haiti dedicated a statue to their hero, Petion, as their gift to Venezuela. The German residents, mindful of the enthusiasm of the medical congress and restricting themselves to the practical side of life, contributed to the hospi-

tal and the attached medical school a thoroughly equipped bacteriological laboratory; while the Spanish colony

offered to the republic a bronze monument representing the famous moment in history when Bolívar and Morillo, on November 27, 1820, embraced each other in friendly farewell, although the former was the leader of the revolutionary army and the latter the Spanish general sent to oppose him. Morillo had signed a peace agreement and hoped soon to be on his way home to Spain; Bolívar thought the end of the war was at hand, not knowing that the battle of Carabobo was yet to come; and both, therefore, with sincere respect for each other, showed their personal admiration for a worthy enemy by a warm embrace, which means so much to the Latin heart. This episode is to be reflected in permanent bronze.

The address of presentation of the last

mentioned monument was made by the Spanish ambassador, the Marquis de la Puerta and Conde de Cratagena, who is a grandson of General Morillo. The *Bulletin* concludes its interesting account with the following passage.

No one who witnessed the ceremony on the 1st of July, when, after a solemn mass in the cathedral, Bolívar Square was crowded with people and the monument to the Liberator was covered with flowers, or who on the Fourth of July saw the same gathering, with equally spontaneous reverence, pay the same touching tribute to the statue of Washington, can doubt the basic sincerity of the people, their determination to seek and to follow ideals, and their confidence that always, when necessity arises, similar leaders will be found to advance them toward the true goal of civilization.

THE KAIETEUR: GUIANA'S GREAT WATERFALL

"THE world's greatest waterfall" is the characterization applied by Mr. Leonard Kennedy in the *National Geographic Magazine* to the Kaieteur fall in British Guiana; and in certain respects the designation is no doubt a correct one. It is customary to speak of the falls of the Yosemite, California, as being 2660 feet in depth, and of the Grand Falls of Labrador as 2000 feet; but both of these measurements are of several leaps, whereas the Kaieteur has a single perpendicular fall of 741 feet, nearly five times as great as Niagara, with a width varying from 350 feet in the dry season to 400 feet in the rainy season. It forms the most striking feature of the Potaro River, which has been described as "a river of great waterfalls," and whose wonderfully diversified and beautiful scenery far surpasses that of any other river of Guiana. But it is by no means easy to reach.

Mr. Kennedy's point of departure was Georgetown, from which he started "on a beautiful Monday in August" on a small steamer up the Demerara River, taking with him, besides his kit, a negro boy to cook. At 5 in the afternoon Wismar, the terminus of the Demerara-Essequibo Railroad, was reached—"a tiny place, consisting of the landing-stage, a railroad station, a store, a gin shop, and half a dozen huts." Proceeding by rail to Rockstone, the Essequibo terminus of the road, which boasted "a surprisingly good hotel," the night was spent. At 6.30 the next morning he embarked in a launch on the Essequibo, arriving about twelve hours later at Tumatumari, where he was met by a pre-engaged crew of seven In-

dians. Of these only one could speak English. His name was "William Grant"; and on expressing surprise at this name Mr. Kennedy "learned that the Indians have several sets of names, graded according to intimacy. To tell a white man their native names would be to give him power to call down the devil on their fortunes." The Indians strapped the boxes of provisions on their backs at Potaro Landing, which was reached at noon; and from this point the journey consisted of tramps through the bush, strenuous pulls against strong currents, portages, and "hair-breadth escapes" over cataracts by day, and experiences with bats and spiders by night, not to mention the fact that "it rains pretty much all the year round in Guiana, very hard and very suddenly." The river journeys were not devoid of dangers either. We read:

Sticking close to the bank to avoid the current, it was nevertheless a hard pull, and once the men got out into water up to their waists and dragged the boat through some rapids. I was afraid one of the big alligators, which we frequently saw along the bank, would be tempted to take a bite of them, but fortunately no such accident occurred. Fish are more dangerous. One variety numbs by an actual electric shock and then feasts on the body of its victim. Another sort is fitted with the sharpest enameled teeth, and can bite off a finger or a toe at a snap. There is likewise a fish whose sting is dangerous.

On Sunday morning passage had been made in the boats to the Tukeit rapids; and here, on the first clearing that had been seen for four days, the party made themselves "at home" for the night—"a swampy home that smelled of malaria." Rain fell here in torrents, and Mr. Kennedy having left his



Photograph by Leonard Kennedy

KAIETEUR FALLS, IN BRITISH GUIANA: THE DROP IS 741 FEET,
OR ABOUT FIVE TIMES AS HIGH AS NIAGARA

cook behind at Waratuk, was compelled to live on "corned beef from Chicago and Uneeda biscuits, washed down with muddy coffee and condensed milk." From Tukeit to the Kaieteur it is four miles in a straight line; but the valley through which the river flows is quite impassable. We condense Mr. Kennedy's description of the final stage of his journey:

Huge boulders block the way, and, as far as I know, no one has ever reached the bottom of the fall. Our route lay up the steep side of the gorge and resembled climbing a ladder of stone. Never have I been so hot as I was on that climb. The perspiration was running off the ends of my fingers and shaking from my face with the jar of every step. All the time we remained in the jungle. Only once, by going out of our way, did we catch a glimpse through the foliage of the other side of the ravine.

I was eager to reach the fall. Leaving the others behind to make camp, Grant and I, armed with my camera, and the umbrella for shade, started at once. . . . Plodding on over the plateau, we

dived into a clump of bushes and a moment later came out on the brink of a precipice, which fell perpendicularly below us 800 feet. Opposite rose majestically the other side of the gorge. To the right, perhaps 500 yards away, I saw the fall! It is impossible to describe the emotion of awe which came over me as I stood there with my single Indian guide gazing upon that obscure and isolated wonder of the world. There was no way to judge of the comparative size of the fall from where I stood. I tried to recall some structure 750 feet high. It occurred to me that the Metropolitan Life tower in New York was not so tall!

I was greatly impressed by the softness of the monstrous fall. A smooth but rapid river nearly 400 feet wide flows quietly to the brink and turns quietly downward. In its fall it breaks into soft white mist and reaches the bottom in a chaos of seething clouds. There is a gentle roar. Only now and then a deep, thunderous growl arose from the hidden caverns at the bottom, giving some idea of the forces which contended there.

Above I could follow the path of the Potaro between the trees for a mile or so, and further off the country became rolling; in the distance, mountainous. The precipitous banks of the river curved in a semicircle, with the fall at the head.

CITY GARDENS VERSUS HOODLUMISM

"WHAT ails our boys, anyhow?" asks Mr. Jacob A. Riis in the *Craftsman*. Just when we thought we had done with hoodlumism, it breaks out again, and worse than ever. Street battles between the hoodlums and the police; patrolmen shot down on their beats by the gang; a "Strong Arm Squad" organized to protect citizens on cars and ferry-boats—all this in the city of New York. Whence and why? The boy would rather be good than bad. Why, then, is he bad? Wicked home surroundings for one thing. "The street and the gutter do their worst. The lack of rational recreation is their faithful ally." Crime in our cities is largely a question of athletics, of a chance for the boy to blow off his steam in an orderly way. If the chance is denied him, he will still blow it off as he can. Mr. Riis looks to our schools for a remedy of present conditions. He says:

My claim is that if a false emphasis were not laid upon head work in our schools—if real training of the hand and eye went with book learning—the result would be a wide-awake and competent lad, instead of the chap who can only fetch and carry. . . . Were we not told a little while ago by authority which no one arose to question that in all the vast bulk of exports from the United States there was not a single article that found a market abroad because of its superior workmanship? That was an arraignment of something vitally wrong somewhere. To find where we have to go back to the school.

Mr. Riis contends further that every school-house should have its workshop that should share the boy with the classroom, and the girl too. "All children should be taught to use tools, not to make mechanics of them, but men. They all want to learn. Why is Robinson Crusoe every normal boy's hero? Why are the Scouts so popular? Because to him they both mean doing things." Manual training is, in fact, mental training. The boy finds himself, and knows what he wants to do. But there is nothing like gardening to arouse the interest of children. Mr. Riis cites the following instance:

In Worcester, Mass., they made Dead Cat Dump into a garden; the children were the gardeners. "They did thirty per cent. better work at their books for it" was their experience. The gang had owned the neighborhood before. "Thou shalt not steal" had been a good joke there; to the police it was a running fight. Eight hundred youngsters cultivated six hundred gardens the second year and raised twelve hundred dollars' worth of truck. Mischief and stealing ceased altogether. The police took a long breath and owned that respect for law and property had succeeded the old order

of things. "The business instinct received a new impetus in doing something."

That was manual training out of school. New York has the same story to tell in the region just north of Hell's Kitchen where Mrs. Parsons has been at work this half-score years. The boys there "stole all they could lay their hands on" and went gaily to jail as on an excursion to "Larry Murphy's Farm." They called themselves the Sons of Rest. The police buckled their belts a little tighter when they heard there was going to be a garden in Hell's Kitchen. To them it meant some new kind of trouble. And there could not have been a worse beginning. They had only clam-shells for tools the first year, and the city owned no plow strong enough to break that soil in which generations had deposited their refuse. That was then; last year Mrs. Parsons marshalled eleven hundred young gardeners, one hundred and fifty of them cripples. Not a tool was stolen. No marauder invaded the garden, not even to dig worms when a school of sunfish came down the river and bait was as scarce as hen's teeth. The destructive forces of the neighborhood had been harnessed by so simple a thing as a garden patch, and made constructive. And "a sense of the dignity of labor" had grown up in that of all most unlikely spots, that made the young gardeners willing and anxious to work for the general good as well as for themselves. Their little "common" was their chief delight. The Sons of Rest disbanded. The neighborhood organized itself on a social basis. That is what the school does when manual training takes its proper place there. . . . When there is an honest carpenter shop, a practical kitchen for domestic cookery, and a sewing room in every public school we shall not only turn out better workmen in better homes, and a healthy respect for toil that has the man behind it; we shall have clearer heads as well for the work they have to do.

Philadelphia has for fourteen years carried on the cultivation of vacant lot gardens.

Last year more than a thousand men and women out of work earned there sixty thousand dollars at an outlay for plowing and planting of about six thousand; that is, they took ten dollars out of the soil for every dollar they put into it. They did more: the "vacant lotters" carried the idea into their homes and every idle bit of soil there acquired possibilities. . . . The children as well as the grown people were "inspired to greater industry and self-dependence." They faced about and looked away from the slum toward the country. There were four or five times as many demands, last spring, for admission to the National Farm School near Philadelphia, as they had room for. The Superintendent of the vacant lot gardens is a young farmer graduated from that excellent institution. A dozen cities have tried that plan. Chicago, Baltimore, Rochester, Buffalo, Reading, and other communities have found it profitable. New York has opened a second Children's Farm School in Little Italy. It has room for a hundred. Why should it not have them?

There are thousands of dirty discouraging tenement yards in our cities that might be made to appeal to the good that is in all children, just as Dead Cat Dump did in Worcester.

OUR KNOWLEDGE OF PRIMEVAL MAN TO DATE

"THERE are no fossil men," exclaimed the great Cuvier just a century ago, and with this dictum settled definitely, as he supposed, the question of man's origin. How far we have progressed in the century that has since passed is well set forth in a summary of archæological discovery, appearing serially in recent numbers of the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift*, by Dr. H. von Buttel-Reepen of Oldenburg.

The foundations of modern archæology may, indeed, be said to have been laid only with the discovery of the Neandertal skull in 1856, so that our entire knowledge of prehistoric man is actually but fifty years old. This discovery, one of the most important of the kind ever made, was nearly coincident with the publication of Darwin's work, so that the progress of archæology and of modern biological science can be said to have moved hand in hand. The Neandertal skull was a most remarkable specimen, in that it was clearly the skull of a man, while more ape-like than that of any existing man, and having a brain capacity about midway between that of man and that of the higher apes. Its peculiar physical features, differentiating it from those of any previously known human skull, were the extraordinary orbital ridges, the low retreating forehead, and its long narrow shape. Derided at first as merely the skull of a modern degenerate, its discovery was followed in succeeding years by that of a whole race of Neandertal men, and as the mists which enshroud recent geological time have cleared away, we have come to distinguish successive epochs more or less closely correlated with those of the Quaternary and Tertiary periods, in which one race after another occupied the European lands, and one of the longest of which, covering 200,000 to 500,000 years, is allotted to the Neandertal race.

But long before that time, far back into the Pliocene, and, as it is claimed by some, even into the Miocene and Oligocene divisions of the Tertiary—a time when the face of land and water presented an utterly different aspect from the present, when a great sea extended across the center of Europe and Asia, when none, or few, of the present mountain systems had begun, and when the now temperate lands were tropical in their fauna and flora—relics have been found which surely indicate the existence of the tool-making animal—chipped flints, termed eoliths, many of which are unquestionably of

artificial origin, while many others no doubt are purely accidental. Some more or less human race must have inhabited Europe throughout the Pliocene; and here we fall upon the remarkable Java find of Dubois, consisting of the remains of the so-called ape-man of Java (*Pithecanthropus erectus*), which is assigned to the end of the Pliocene, or beginning of the Pleistocene; and which is far more primitive in character even than the Neandertal type, having but two-thirds the brain capacity of the latter, in so much that it is still disputed whether the remains are that of an ape-like man, or of a man-like ape. And this is not all, for a new and strange anthropomorphous form was recently found by M. Schlosser in the Oligocene of Egypt, a form which he calls *Propliopithecus*, and pronounces "ancestral not only for all the Simiids (true apes), but presumably also of the Hominids (ancestors of man)." The Oligocene is reckoned to have closed around 6,000,000 years ago, and if these deductions are correct our ancestry is traced back into prehistoric ages a far greater period of time than even most scientists have hitherto dared to imagine.

Late in the Quaternary, at the close of the third ice-invasion, the Neandertalers are first seen to be on the decline, and were superseded by a succession of other races, one of which, the so-called Loess-hunters, have been found abundantly fossilized in Europe. This race was much more modern than the Neandertal tribe, being about the same average height (5 feet 7 inches), but more lightly and gracefully built; they are known to have lived largely on meat, and to have hunted and fed especially upon the wild horses which then covered the plains. The Neandertal race had been a stationary one, making no sensible progress, and their later eoliths are practically indistinguishable from the earlier ones; but from this period on, we see a development becoming more rapid, first of art, and then of industry. To about the same time as the Loess-hunters belong the Grimaldians, found in southern France and the Pyrenees, to whom are ascribed certain carved images of human beings having physical characteristics markedly in common with the modern Hottentots. The Loess-hunters are not supposed to belong to the same stock as the Neandertalers, and the Cro-Magnonians, which in turn superseded the former, are supposed by some to have been a cross between the Loess-hunters and Neandertalers. This last race,

assigned to the last ice-period, is known by many finds in central and southern France and the Pyrenees, and is responsible for the remarkable cave-drawings of mammoths, bison, and other contemporary animals which have been long known to archaeologists, and reproduced in text-books as the work of palæolithic man.

HAS THE CHURCH TOO MANY MINISTERS?

IS it true that, as is frequently stated, fewer men than formerly are studying for the ministry; that many pulpits are vacant; that young men are attracted to scientific professions and commercial pursuits; that ministers receive starvation salaries; that the profession is suffering a decline; that more men are needed in the ministry? An entirely different view is taken of the situation by Mr. George Parkin Atwater in the October *Atlantic Monthly*. He asks, "Have we the courage to face the possible conclusion that *the ministry is an overcrowded profession?*" By way of clearing the ground for a discussion of the subject he disposes of some of the fictitious reasons given for the apparent failure of the ministry. He says:

It is quite true that the profession is in competition with many others as an alluring field for the activity of young men. But moral enthusiasm has not died among the young, nor has the desire for spiritual adventure vanished. Hundreds of young men are crowding into professions, such as teaching, that offer no great share in the heap of gold that Midas-like wizards are creating by the touch of their capable hands.

Nor need we consider seriously that inadequate salaries are a cause of insufficient candidates. They may quite as well be the result of over-supply. The churches are not impoverished. They spend vast sums of money on buildings, organs, windows, and music. The money needed to support the ministers is not lacking. It has simply been misdirected.

Or again, the statement that men have not sufficient liberty in the ministry is unfounded. They have every liberty that a seeker after truth desires.

The main contention of this writer is asserted by him in the following sentence: "With due allowance for an exceptional condition here and there, *every community has more ministers than it needs for the proper spiritual development of the people.*" In any village or city in the land you will find, he claims, one minister for every thousand persons; and, excluding from the count the Roman Catholics and those on whom all Christian effort is wasted, there will be found one for about every five hundred people. The ministry is overcrowded "because the land is over-churched. Here is the seat of the trouble." The Christian forces, by divisions and subdivisions, are becoming the source of vast woe

and distress to themselves; and these subdivisions "create a necessity for material outlay that is appalling in its amount and distressing in its result." The ineffectiveness of an overcrowded ministry is the result of "destructive competition on the one hand, and on the other of misdirecting ministerial energy into too many secular channels."

The remedies suggested are: (1) Church reunion.

Faulty as any tentative plan of federation may be, it is a measure of self-defense. . . . If we are really concerned about the ministerial supply, we should solve this problem first. The oversupply of ministers will never cease to bring distress upon the profession until we do not have to submit to the necessity of having ten churches where two or three would serve.

(2) A more thoroughly equipped ministry.

We need men who are more capable in their profession; men who can treat spiritual necessities with insight and skill. Our ministers should be more thoroughly trained to larger conceptions of their work. But immediately the cry goes up that our ministers have too much to do already. Here we may take a leaf from the book of the world.

The successful leader delegates as much as possible to others. But in the ministry we find a startling condition. *At least two-thirds of the work of every minister is not an essential part of his ministry.* He does it because he is an interested and capable leader, and not because it is the proper expression of ministerial function. The parish of the future will relieve the minister of every duty alien to his profession. His spiritual ministrations will not only be paramount, but will be far more comprehensive. He will minister to many more lives.

Mr. Atwater asks if it is not true that we have too much preaching.

An over-supply of ministers accomplishes this. The exaltation of the sermon into the chief place in public worship has given to it an undue prominence. Nothing would be so beneficial as to have our pulpits silenced for a year. I mean by that, complete abstinence from the usual type of hortatory or argumentative sermons. Instruction, wise, sound, consecutive, might well take their place for a time. It would accomplish the same thing for the Church that a reasonable period of fasting does for the individual. The other phases of worship would be restored—the worship of prayer, confession, praise, and enlightened faith. Some of them are entirely gone from the churches. The people no

longer pray, but listen to the minister as he prays. Worship has become a passive matter.

Mr. Atwater expresses his belief that if our ministers "turned from their exhortations to practical instruction in the substance of the

Christian faith, to positive and clear teaching of doctrine, to specific and calm statement of the methods of developing righteousness, and to an exposition of real and not artificial sins, men would be found returning to their pews.

CUBA AS SHE IS: AN ENGLISH VIEW

FRRIENDS of *Cuba Libre* will be gratified by an account of the island, from the pen of Mr. Sydney Brooks, which appears in the *Forum*. Mr. Brooks toured the island from one end to the other, investigating at first hand its political and economic conditions; and his record of impressions is characterized by thorough impartiality and, as might have been expected, evinces acuteness of observation.

The first thing that strikes the visitor, he says, is the aspect of health and cleanliness of towns and villages alike. The Cuban death rate

is the lowest but one in the world; and it was almost bewildering to be forced to realize that Havana, with the terror of whose name all Europe and America rang for three hundred years and more, is to-day no longer a fever den, but one of the favorite health and tourist resorts of the West Indies. American energy and example and Cuban docility and good sense have to be thanked for a transformation that is nothing less than a medical and sanitary miracle. . . . Yellow fever has become not merely obsolete, but virtually impossible. . . . In tracing yellow fever to its source and showing how it could be prevented, the Americans made the most important contribution to the science of public health since the discovery of vaccination.

Since Spain relinquished the island, Cuba has built up a commercial prosperity that is little short of marvelous. Of its natural resources, Mr. Brooks writes:

There is perhaps no other territory of its size in the whole world so richly endowed with potential wealth, yet only one fifteenth of the island is under any sort of cultivation, and its population hardly numbers more than two millions. . . . It is open to any well-organized concern, exercising no more than moderate intelligence to establish itself on the virgin, humid, and incomparably productive soil of the eastern parts, and in five or six years to build up a great and flourishing industry in sugar, timber, or fruit. The thing has been done in at least a half-dozen instances that I could give, and it will be done oftener still as settlers multiply, means of communication spread, credit becomes plentiful, the *latifundia* are broken up, and titles to land are clothed in a greater security. These are the crying needs of the island in the sphere of economic development and legislation. . . . It is safe to say that no one has as yet any idea of the wealth the "Pearl of the Antilles" is

capable of producing. It is only now that its resources are being systematically surveyed, and the work of exploiting them has hardly more than begun. . . . Some \$500,000,000 have been invested in Cuba in the past twelve years, mainly by Americans and Englishmen.

Curiously enough, Mr. Brooks does not treat of the Cuban tobacco industry, but he discusses the position and prospects of Cuba's greatest industry, sugar. Of these he writes:

Practically all the sugar that Cuba produces goes to the United States, and the consumption in America is increasing in a faster ratio than that of any other land. The United States now uses some 3,350,000 tons of sugar a year. Less than a decade hence she will require over 5,000,000 tons. Where is it to come from? Hawaii, Porto Rico, and Louisiana seem to be reaching the limit of their production . . . in the Philippines exceptional and hitherto insoluble difficulties have to be overcome before cane sugar can be cultivated at a profit; and it appears therefore reasonable to expect that the United States will have more and more to depend for her supply of this staple commodity upon Cuba, and that Cuba alone is capable of the development that will be needed to cope with American demands. The soil and climate of Cuba are as admirably fitted for the cultivation of sugar as of tobacco . . . and the last few years have shown that joint-stock companies, working in Cuba on a large scale, with plenty of capital, modern scientific methods and machinery and expert managers, can produce the best and cheapest cane sugar in the world, and, if put to it, could even undersell their beet rivals in the markets of Europe.

Sugar is not the only industry that offers successful exploitation. In

the extension of the railroad system, in the furnishing of the cities with the accessories of an up-to-date civilization, such as telephones, electric light, hotels, transportation services and so on, in tobacco growing, stock raising, the lumber industry, fruit and vegetable cultivation, and the utilization of the native supplies of sponges and textile plants—in all these directions there are great opportunities awaiting both the large capitalist and the small one.* The material future of Cuba, in short, may be taken as assured.

Notwithstanding all that has been said, the development of the island will depend in great measure upon the course of politics; and the question is, Will the Cuban Republic

endure, or will it perish in a "morass of corruption, faction, and disorder"? Hereupon Mr. Brooks's observations may be summarized as follows:

Cuba cannot go to war; the United States retains the right to intervene for the preservation of Cuban independence; and with an ultimate veto power over her financial conduct vested in the United States, Cuba seems to be testing the experiment of self-government under the most satisfactory conditions. Politics in Cuba is a struggle, not of opposing policies or principles, but of the Ins and the Outs; an affair of deals and accommodations on a basis of a division of the offices and spoils. As to the innumerable tales of graft, while some of them have doubtless a substratum of truth, many are without foundation in fact; and the total amount is smaller than any man of experience would anticipate. At present, the taint of corruption is a danger, but not a menacing one. Both the political and the economic situation is complicated by the fact that most of the land and practically all of the railways, industrial enterprises, and trading establishments in the country are owned by Americans, Englishmen, and Spaniards chiefly, whose concern in affairs of state is limited to their material interests.

Outside of Havana, Mr. Brooks found no one who did not scout the idea of another revolution. Whether the Republic could survive a long-continued period of commercial depression, and the possibility of a political feud leading to another rising, are apparently the dangers that are most locally feared. That the army or rural guards would ever overthrow the Government by force very few people believe. The Cubans heartily dread another occupation by the Americans; and the fear of it acts as an abiding restraint upon their domestic contentions. Moreover, "Cuba is admirably policed; and the Government has shown that it has both the will and the means to repress disorder." The final impression brought away by Mr. Brooks was that Cuba was, with all its obvious shortcomings, faring as well as any rational man could expect.

An Opposing View

"One side of a story is good till the other is told." Mr. Forbes Lindsay, writing in *Lippincott's*, presents a very different picture of conditions in Cuba. He admits that the island has one of the richest territories in the world; but he holds that its people are "among the poorest," and that the economic conditions are "as unfavorable as possible to the welfare of its population."

Foreigners own practically everything in the country. The Island is exploited for the benefit of every one but the native. Additional capital is

constantly coming in. New enterprises are constantly being floated. These are of benefit to the community at large, but, if we except the office-holding class, they work little good to the natives. In fact, they decrease the Cuban's chances of ever doing anything for himself. Capital and corporations produce wealth, but very little of it finds its way into the pockets of the *guajiro* or the negro. What the country needs, if its people are ever to become prosperous, is a greater diversity of industries, with opportunities for the small man—that and an increase of small land-owners. The former condition may be secured in time by the introduction of various manufacturing industries for which there is an existent need. The latter is beyond the bounds of hope. There is no public domain for disposal to homesteaders. Practically all the land in the Island is occupied, and none can be bought except at high figures. A very small proportion of the peasant class own their holdings. Many of them are squatters, and others maintain possession on defective titles.

Foreigners own 90 per cent. of the land and property in Cuba, and since that is the case, the more foreign capital that comes in, the better it is for the country at large. But the only outlook for the Cuban is to serve as a hired man in the land of his nativity.

The peasant, whether he be the white *guajiro* or the negro, lives from hand to mouth, and, "if you should get his candid opinion, it would be that the conditions are no better than they were under Spain, and perhaps not so good." Cuba is "a land of contrasts—a land of anomalies"; and one of the many anomalies is found in the customs duties.

Here is a country which has practically no industries to protect; yet its tariff exaction falls upon each soul at the rate of twelve dollars per head. The per capita contribution of the people of the United States to the customs revenue is three dollars and a half. In other countries it is considerably less.

The office-holders, the professional politicians, are the only Cubans who are "waxing fat and living in contentment." These "toil not, but they reap with prodigious assiduity. They fill easy jobs on extravagant salaries, and try to persuade the country that they are performing extremely difficult and important tasks." As for the peasant, he "has lost what little faith he had in the politician. . . . He begins to realize that he has been the tool of a handful of shrewd countrymen who made him the means of securing their personal ends and are still exploiting him." But the limit to his forbearance has almost been reached; and he is now ripe to serve the purposes of any agitators. According to Mr. Lindsay, a revolution is even now brewing in Cuba, and it will be more difficult to suppress, because more widespread and spontaneous, than the two already nipped in.

the bud during the present administration.

And the remedy for Cuban conditions? Mr. Lindsay believes the only completely efficient one to be annexation to the United

States; and that this will come to pass before many years is the conviction of most well-informed natives and others having a knowledge of the situation.

THE MEANING OF GERMAN FOREIGN TRADE

THE immense influence which the increased foreign trade of Germany has had upon the recent prodigious growth of the industries of that country, and hence the vast significance of that trade in the life of the German nation, is clearly set forth in an article—based upon a tabulated report in the *Deutsche Reichsanzeiger*—in a recent issue of *Velhagen und Klasing's Monatshefte* (Berlin):

One may become passionately absorbed in these columns of figures. What a story they tell of labor and struggle! They conjure up the history of a generation. But how systematize these figures? Very simply. Trade embraces purchase and sale. Foreign commerce means trade with a foreign nation. Germany buys and sells.

Germany buys the necessities of life from abroad, says that writer.

She spent more than 2602 million marks (a mark equals 23.8 cents) during the past year for foreign products of field, orchard, and meadow, and almost 2 billions for animals and meat. Germany's soil is too restricted to suffice for the nourishment of her people; her population has increased by 23 millions in a generation. Consequently she had to purchase abroad what she lacked. How has she paid for these imports? The tables show that she sold to foreign nations many useful products from her surplus—coal for example. Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Austria-Hungary have little or no fuel. They are supplied by Germany. The exports of this one article amounted last year to over 444 million marks. And the land is rich in potash. No other country possesses potassic salts. With the increasing population of the globe, increasing demands are made upon the soil, hence it requires more artificial nourishment. Germany furnishes the entire world, and particularly America, with such artificial fertilizers. The potash export alone runs into millions. But in iron, too, Germany stands first in Europe. Last year it had an output of 15 million tons of pig iron, of which the surplus was exported. The exports in dyestuffs and pharmaceutical products are particularly heavy; the raw materials for the chemical industries are obtained mostly at home. One large item, footing 819 million marks, concerns the sale of machines, vessels, and electrical appliances abroad; Germany's finest industrial achievements belong in these fields. The iron required for them is a home-product. The copper is mostly imported, chiefly from America. Pianos and beer Germany supplies to all parts of the world; Nuremberg and Thuringia send their toys over the globe. On the debit

side of the foreign balance-account we have, of course, considerable items, for Germany is obliged to import wool, cotton, wood, raw-silk, as well as coffee, petroleum, tobacco, and cocoa.

We thus get an idea of what foreign trade means to Germany—it is a prerequisite of her existence as a nation. It supplies her with the necessities and luxuries which she lacks; provides her industries with the raw material not obtainable at home. But it also sends broadcast the products of her industry.

It is owing to foreign trade that the 65 millions in Germany thrive better now than the 25 millions in our grandfathers' day. Since they export goods, they need not export men. The increase in foreign commerce has diminished emigration. But it is, besides, one of the chief pillars of the public treasury. It is the main source of income of the railways; the customs yield the country the enormous sum of 760 million marks. And foreign trade has been as beneficial to agriculture as to the industries. Never before has husbandry realized as much from stock-farming and horticulture. The factories can pay higher wages and provide arrangements for the well-being of the employees. Retail trade flourishes and the interest on mortgages can be promptly paid. Foreign trade is a direct vent for all forms of economic life. The domestic market is, to be sure, of very great importance, but production often exceeds its powers of consumption. The surplus threatens to choke the factories, and here export trade intervenes as a savior.

For the rest, the German foreign trade has been an agitating factor in modern political and economic development. New strata of the people have come to the fore, demanding a share in guiding the fortunes of the country. The old time and the new clashed against each other; nor is this historic struggle yet over. But, along with many annoyances, it has brought the intellectual and technical powers of the people to their full bloom. Never before in Germany has there been such a display of energy, such a straining of faculties as in the last decades, the last years. More and more have foreign politics become commercial politics.

Formerly England was, in the main, the intermediary between buyer and seller in the German foreign trade; and when Germany began to ship goods in her own vessels, they

were mostly built in England. Along with the growth of foreign trade there was a growing national consciousness; the natives wanted to be masters of their merchant marine, and there grew up a great shipbuilding industry, with which the shipping trade has kept pace. We cannot fully realize the importance of the foreign trade unless we note what it has done for those two branches of enterprise.

The German merchant marine has a gross tonnage of over 4.3 million tons. During the last year there were 17,358 entries of ships into the port of Hamburg, bringing in an aggregate net tonnage of 12 2-3 million tons, and the ships built within the last years averaged an aggregate gross tonnage of 700,000 tons annually. The German wharves employ about 70,000 laborers and officials. Still more imposing are the figures of the shipping concerns at whose head stand the Hamburg-American Line and the North-German Lloyd, with a combined capital of about 400 million marks. The capital invested in shipbuilding and the shipping trade may well be reckoned at a billion marks. All this is the direct result of foreign trade, which is closely united, for weal or woe, with those interests. Every merchantman is a work of art; its body

alone maintains to-day various branches of labor. Then comes its equipment. This presented problems to the machine and electrical industries which led to their present high development. The engineer and the machinist achieve their greatest triumphs in modern ship construction.

German foreign trade represents a yearly value of 17 billion marks. The old, simple economic system, which could satisfy all its needs at home, had no occasion to look abroad. It was thus with the German people as long as they could supply their wants in their own country.

But the growing foreign commerce has wrenched them from that homely insularity, entangled them in international relations. And commerce makes us cosmopolitan, smooths off rough edges. Foreign trade, with its inextricable threads, compels, too, a more cautious international attitude. And, above all, foreign trade has an educative influence upon the people in a mercantile and technical direction. Through it they have dealings with people of all grades of culture, from the Englishman to the Bantu negro, whose tastes must be consulted and satisfied, their languages mastered, etc., while it awakens new needs in foreign nations and leads them to exploit their own resources.

SCHOOLBOY SUICIDES IN GERMANY

THE Czar once replied to the American Ambassador Henry White's question as to the Russian famines in this wise: "Of course there are famines—certainly there are. Every winter whole villages die out. Unfortunately there's no help for it."

Herr Robert Hessen asks, in the *Neue Rundschau* (Berlin), if the alarming number of suicides among schoolboys is to become a national institution for Germany just as famines are for Russia, to be spoken of with like indifference. Says Herr Hessen:

We hear that nobody is to blame. The State, the teachers, the parents are all faultless. The weakness lies in the schoolboys alone. Above all, there must be no relaxing of discipline. There is too much outdoor exercise already. More drill, severer handling. It will come out all right. When indeed was scholasticism ever at a loss for an answer? At the trials for witchcraft the husband could protest as loudly as he would, "Thursday night when my wife is said to have ridden to the Sabbath on a broomstick, she was sitting with me at home by the stove." The judge cried out, "The devil put an imaginary woman there by you. The husband is an accomplice. To the rack with him and we'll hear all about it!" So now they say, "The wretched schoolboys are in a conspiracy—More torture—to the rack with them!" At first it was only "quite mysterious" lads who drowned themselves or sprang out of third story windows. Then they were "sickly weaklings." Then they were pathological degenerates "un-

fitted as it was for the struggle of life." But now the news comes from Leipzig that three absolutely healthy sturdy lads, the most gifted scholars of the gymnasium killed themselves before the beginning of the term rather than re-enter. Professor Gurlitt reckons for the two decades 1881-1901 not less than 1152 schoolboy suicides. And lately these have largely been from the normal, hopeful element. If the drilled and much supervised Germans of to-day have forgotten that there is such a thing as strong love of personal liberty in young people, a stubborn independence that will rather die than live on under conditions that have become unbearable, let them go to the play that is applauded everywhere just now. In "Glaube und Heimat" (Faith and Home) a ten-year-old boy jumps over the railing into the mill stream because he was forced to stay at home, while the parents are to emigrate. And rather than endure such a violent and arbitrary cruelty he suicides as so many of our schoolboys have done.

"Are we so blind, so dull-witted, so broken to the fiscal yoke," exclaims Herr Hessen, "that we can see the boy-actor die and find it touching and fine, and afterwards leave the theater and be astounded and even aggrieved if exactly the same act takes place under our very noses?"

This, as it seems, in Germany, old-fashioned motive is called pride. Seventy years ago a young German felt this as he wrote to his father he was leaving the army. He liked commanding less than not obeying. This proud dreamer was Otto von

Bismarck. If from the incident of the three Leipzig boys it is not conceded that the blame must be in the German school system, then we must assume that there is a conspiracy, not of the scholars, but of the State, teachers and parents.

The great mistake lies in the fact that the Germans have no biological ideal, Herr Hessen continues, and that modern physiology has not yet banished mediæval asceticism from the Christian schools. Teachers and parents still believe that the far superior minds can be cultivated without considering the entirely separate body, or indeed even maltreating it. Gymnastics are unavailing. The boy's heart is not in it. The English boy knows what sport means to him, an incentive and pleasure of the first rank, but the German boy takes leave of John's mortally wearisome drill as gladly as from the Latin grammar or Cicero. The State ignores the necessity of making in a healthy way the growing schoolboy every evening so tired that he falls to sleep when his head touches the pillow. The State only understands brain fatigue. This produces a need for alcohol and "exciting" reading, an unhealthy imagination and other evils. Herr Hessen points out that one end of this blindness is sadly enough a mercantile one. Education must be made to pay in later life. And as German clerks, employees and scientists in every line are known and paid for abroad, the parents consent to this pitiless cramming. The alternative lies between several million marks a year less of national income with a robust national youth and a sure national future; or several millions more as long as the nation lasts, and biologically speaking, ruin. Herr Hessen quotes Nietzsche's *mot*

that work without pleasure in it, without personal choice, is the surest receipt for *décadence*, even for idiocy. The German schoolmasters' highest pedagogical achievement consists in drilling their pupils in subjects for which they have no natural disposition. They have no patience with individuality in any form.

The reform must proceed, this writer insists, from the principle that on the condition and training of the body the training of the mind must be based, the Germans must give twice as much money for their school budget, so that there may be twice as many teachers in twice as many rooms with twice as much time to teach in reality, not merely to hear the parrot-like repeating of what the boys learned by heart at home. The learning at home must be altogether done away with, so that the afternoons may belong to athletics and open-air exercise.

As in every question of general import nowadays the competition between England and Germany has to be dragged in. But here it would appear less forced than is usually the case. Herr Hessen concludes with this warning:

If the Briton, who actually possesses a biological ideal, finally observes that his chief competitor remains determined to victimize his youth, he may perhaps give up his ideal and take ours—the commercial juggernaut. Then, as in educated English circles much greater powers of endurance are stored up, finally the Germans will be the losers in spite of the brutal stupidity with which they have sacrificed the schoolboys to the international competitive struggle! Our boys have kept up wonderfully until now in the endurance of the unendurable. But if so many of them still prefer to die and with Cassius throw off that part of tyranny that bears upon them?

THE PRESENT HIGH PRICE OF FURS AND ITS CAUSES

A WRITER in *Cosmos* discusses the extraordinary rise in the cost of fine furs, and describes some of the efforts now being made to rear fur-bearing animals in captivity.

Recently a suit came up for pleading before the Eighth Court of the Tribunal of the Seine. A furrier who had sold a cloak of rabbit-skin as of "electric otter," was sued for cheating his patron. The explanations made by the accused are worthy of being noted: "The furs we sell," he said, "are all rabbit-skin, called by various names by the houses dealing in them. What is sold under the name

of Hudson Bay otter is the best grade of rabbit. Our patrons are well aware that we sell nothing but rabbit. I had no intention whatever of deceiving M. X." And, in support of his statements, the presidents and vice-presidents of the Fur Exchange and of the Association of Furriers appeared as witnesses. We shall quote only the following testimony: "I should say that in order not to call rabbit by its name,—for that would not attract patrons at all,—we use various terms chosen more or less according to the prospective patron. For example, rabbit,

for selling purposes, is called electric otter. Belgian otter, etc. And, finally, everybody knows that a 70-inch cloak of real otter cannot be bought for a thousand francs. A cloak of that length in real otter would cost from 2500 to 4000 francs."

From this the reader will appreciate how difficult it is to secure a genuine fur, and will understand the higher prices at which such pelts are now sold. It must be remembered that these are very fashionable garments and that the furrier demands high prices for the elegance which he knows how to bestow upon whatever is produced in his shop. Yet it must be borne in mind that during the past twenty years the cost to the dealer in furs,—the price paid to the trapper,—has advanced at least 500 per cent. and, to cite a single instance,—the skin of a black fox costs from 100 to 150 pounds sterling!

The cause of the increased cost of skins is attributed not only to fashion and the popularity of automobiling, which calls for warm clothing, but chiefly to the gradual decrease of animals which produce the furs. These retreat before civilization, which steadily spreads over the regions once occupied by them. They fall beneath the blows of the trappers armed with all sorts of modern devices and urged on by the craving for a constantly increasing profit. It is not difficult to foresee, unless protective laws intervene more effectively, the time when a large proportion of these animals will disappear absolutely. The rabbit will then be left the sole provider of furs.

It is not to be wondered at that thoughtful people have, in view of the high prices paid for the spoils of these animals, taken hold of the idea of raising them in captivity, as has already been done in the case of the rabbit. The notion is not new, and for a long time the trappers of Canadian fox, when they have had the luck of catching a female about to litter, have cared for it in captivity until the young were born, then raised them until their coats were in the best condition. Many of these hunters do this every year and secure good results. From this it is only a step to raising foxes on a large scale.

One of the promoters of such enterprises was T. J. Morgan, who conceived the idea of making use of some of the Sessudi Islands, 1500 miles east of Pribiloff, for raising fur-bearing animals. This company has secured the use of five islands of a total area of 150,000 acres, which will be stocked with the blue fox from the Pribiloff Islands and the arctic silver fox.

An attempt, partly successful, has also been made to raise the "royal" Russian sable; but, according to the testimony of Mr. Morgan, great difficulties are met with. The company is compelled to feed the animals in winter though they find enough to eat in summer, for there is abundance of birds along the coast and of vegetation upon the highlands where they thrive; when this fails, they are fed upon meat, grain and other foods of that kind.

The writer also describes a plant for raising beavers. The farm, called Beavers Farm Hollow, is situated in the midst of swamps formed by a creek which is controlled by a dam and out upon this smooth sheet of water open the houses of the beavers. The latter have at their disposal 454 hectares (1150 acres) of the shore on both sides of the creek for exercise. The space is not enclosed by fences that the animals would gnaw at or through which they would devote themselves to finding a way. It is regarded as wiser to leave them more or less free rather than to attempt to keep them in a captivity from which they show themselves capable of escaping. The beavers, moreover, appreciating good feeding and lodging, do not dream of leaving their colony. The young are born in April or May, the litter consisting of from two to four; the family increases rapidly. The young are fed with a mixture of green food with a little corn which is scattered for them along the shore; nothing is more curious than to see the little animals gnaw the ears of corn, like pigs, or carry them held tight in their teeth to their huts for safe keeping. They would seem to have become domesticated, but nevertheless take to flight if an attempt is made to take hold of them. During its early development this farm yielded a profit of over \$23,000. Impressed by these various attempts, the Government of the United States has encouraged the establishment of farms for raising fur-bearing animals, and a certain number actually exist especially in Maine and Ohio.

The Department of Agriculture has published a bulletin upon "Silver Fox Farming." All these new projects seem to be very successful; the returns which the proprietors secure are large, and it is noteworthy that up to this time no epidemic has come to decimate the animals raised in captivity,—which was the great apprehension before the farms were started.

The muskrat was formerly held in contempt by trappers on account of the small sum brought by its skin,—5 cents; but now

that this brings from 50 cents to \$100, according to its quality, a large trade in these animals has been established. Thus, in Ohio, a special farm has been started for raising muskrats. It suffices to enclose a stretch of marshy ground to see these rodents swarm, and, without other expense than that of hunting and skinning, the farm yields its owners \$500 a year. The muskrat is very prolific: each female has two litters a year of from five to ten young. Besides, living entirely on vegetation, they can easily be fed when their natural food fails with the coming of winter. In the Southern States, where the industry is now thriving, the flesh is consumed and is served in hotels under the name of "marsh rabbit."

The raising of seals is not possible in the hands of a private citizen, but the Government of the United States is about to put it into operation. A number of young animals will be taken from the Pribiloff Islands to start a colony on the Pacific Coast. In 1867 the number of fur-bearing seals in these islands was estimated at four millions. In 1890 the islands were leased to a company, and the number of seals actually existing has fallen to 140,000. The lease having expired, the Government hopes to restock these shores rapidly.

If all these undertakings realize what they promise, our furriers will not be permitted much longer to sell rabbit-skin in place of authentic furs.

DENSITY OF POPULATION IN NEW YORK CITY

THE growth of the group of population comprised within the cities of New York, Jersey City, and Hoboken forms the subject of a recent contribution by Professor Mark Jefferson to the *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society*.

The writer defines "city" density as that of continuous areas having 10,000 or more people to the square mile, anything less than this being "suburban." According to this classification, the anthropographic "city" at the Hudson's mouth had a population of 4,736,000, according to the census of 1910, while 369,000 "suburbanites" dwelt within the same corporate limits. The suburban districts, in this sense, do not necessarily lie in the outskirts. Thus Ward 2, in the heart of Manhattan (south of the Brooklyn Bridge and west of Fulton Market), where in general the land is too costly to be used for residential purposes, has a population of only 933, which corresponds to a density of 7000 to the square mile. In 1900 its density was 12,000. (The most thinly populated borough of London City, All Hallows, Barking, still has a density of 18,000 per square mile.)

In contrast to this *rus in urbe* (anthropo-

graphically speaking), Ward 11, which lies just east of Tompkins Square, has a density exceeding 446,000 to the square mile. Here men dwell closer together than anywhere else in the world, so far as statistics show. Studies based on the new enumeration by city blocks make it appear probable that the five blocks just east of the Bowery between Delancey and Broome Streets have each a density of more than 600,000 to the square mile!

Farther up the island, at West Thirty-third Street, 16,500 people were displaced during the decade ending 1910, to make room for the new Pennsylvania Terminal. Five blocks were cut out, with 500 city homes. Hence the density in this section decreased materially during the decade. Mulberry Bend Park, in Ward 6, shows a diminished density that was not spontaneous, but resulted from the "battle with the slum."

The inhabitants of Richmond Borough (Staten Island) are all "suburbanites," while Hoboken has no "suburban" population.

By 1920 the anthropographic city will certainly contain over 6,000,000 inhabitants.



NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Banking and Currency Reform

MR. JOHN CLAFLIN, president of the New York State branch of the National Citizen's League, hit the nail on the head last month when he declared it a mistake for people to believe that only bankers are concerned with the problem of reforming this country's banking and currency system.

He said, "the problem concerns every business man, every farmer, every wage-earner"—and he might have added incidentally "every investor." For, in the words of one commentator, "upon its right solution depends the stability and safety of production and trade, the security of credit, the safety of wages and profit." As President Taft has lately been urging, there is no legislation of any kind—tariff, railroad, corporation, or what not—that at all equals in importance that which will have to do with the coördination of our banking machinery.

But the question is not yet ready for the law-makers and will not be for some time. Since last February bankers all over the country have been studying, and discussing in their conventions, the tentative plan outlined by Chairman Aldrich of the National Monetary Commission, and for their part they are pretty generally in agreement on underlying principles, as well as on the manner in which these principles ought to be applied. Now, as Mr. Claflin says, the business men, the farmers, and the wage-earners are to be given the opportunity of having their say. That is what the National Citizens' League is for—to get them interested as they should be.

The task of that organization, which has branches in all of the various States and many of the leading cities, will be to collect and diffuse information on this all-important subject with a view to bringing the public mind to the right conclusions and thus to make sure that the right kind of laws will eventually be enacted.

One of the most significant things about this particular reform movement is that it is not political in the sense that "political" is sometimes understood. That is, it is a movement in connection with which every-

body realizes that the game of party politics ought not to be played. The question with which it is concerned affects more than any other that has been before the country in recent years the prosperity of the whole people. Thus, we find in all statements of the aims of the National Citizens' League that it will conduct its work independent of political as well as of banking interests. It begins its campaign of education uncommitted to the "Aldrich," or any other specific plan, as a whole, although it recognizes that many valuable suggestions may be had from the Monetary Commission over which Mr. Aldrich presided for so long.

Where the Investor's Interest Lies

A FUNDAMENTAL part of the plan proposed by Senator Aldrich is the Reserve Association of America. To the proposal of an association of that kind the National Citizen's League would give its support, provided the institution's control and management were such as to insure its representing, at all times, the interests of the nation at large, and it is not unlikely that the idea will be made the basis of whatever comprehensive reform plan is ultimately adopted.

Some of the proposed functions of the association may be referred to with the idea of showing wherein the investor, as well as the business man, is interested. It is pretty generally known to what extent the banks frequently follow the custom of lending their funds "on call" in Wall Street when the demand for money elsewhere in the country is at low ebb; how a plentiful supply of funds placed in the hands of the large speculators in that way sometimes causes violent rises in the prices of securities; and how, when it becomes necessary for the banks to withdraw these funds to meet a sudden demand in trade and industry, a further unsettlement of the markets occurs, with security prices then moving downward about as rapidly as they had previously been advanced.

All this, it is urged, would be impossible with an "elastic" currency—one which would automatically expand and contract in supply in direct proportion to the real demand for it. Such a currency it is proposed

to obtain by providing that the Reserve Association may buy from the banks the promissory notes and commercial paper of merchants, manufacturers, and others, to whom they have loaned money, and with these credit instruments of business as security, together with $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. of gold or other lawful money, issue new currency for general circulation. The association would in time become the sole note issuing agency, and thus we should have a currency whose quantity would be governed entirely by the requirements of business and not by the price of government bonds as now. The amount in circulation would be working all the time to the maximum of efficiency. There would be no surplus to pile up in the big financial centers in dull times to find employment as best it might. On the other hand, "money panics" like the one of 1907-8, for example, would be impossible, and all of the investment dangers entailed by such disturbances would, therefore, be removed.

Wanted: Employment for Our Gold

AS if to furnish a timely and convincing argument for early banking reform, the National City Bank of New York in its October review of United States securities and Government finance, called attention to this country's enormous hoard of gold and to the fact that no means are provided for its use so as to insure the protection and stability which its size should give.

Doubtless it will surprise a good many people to learn that the total stock of the metal including the reserves in the United States Treasury, is about \$1,200,000,000, an amount, as the review points out, not before approached in the world's history. The next greatest stock is about \$640,000,000 in the Imperial Bank of Russia. The Bank of France in September held \$630,000,000, while the Bank of England's supply was only about \$200,000,000, with that of the Bank of Germany only a little in excess of the latter figure.

From what has already been said, it is clear that the note-issuing function of an institution like the Reserve Association of America would be possible only in the event of the association's being made the central reservoir of the country's gold reserves. That is exactly what is proposed. Under such an arrangement, the necessary proportion of this great hoard of \$1,200,000,000 would become available, as the supply of France is, for example, to play its part in converting

commercial credit into currency in accordance with the country's needs. It would not then, as now, lie comparatively idle in times of money stringency, available only as security for gold certificates, rather than for a general circulating medium of exchange.

The "Savings Habit"

IT seems like a paradox to say that during the twelve months ended on June 7 last, the period during which so much talk was indulged in about the rising cost of living, the savings deposits of the people of this country increased by more than \$142,000,000. Still the fact remains, as shown by the Comptroller of Currency at Washington, whose department has just made public the statistics covering the condition, on the date mentioned, of 635 mutual savings banks and 1249 stock institutions.

Analyzed a little bit more closely, however, the Comptroller's figures readily disclose wherein the contradiction is only apparent. For example, between June, 1910, and June, 1911, the number of savings-bank depositors increased from 9,142,908 to 9,597,185, while the total amount of money standing to their credit on the books of the banks increased from \$4,070,486,247 to \$4,212,583,598. The average of individual deposits had fallen from \$445.20 to \$438.93. In other words, the larger aggregate deposits were brought about entirely through new accounts. More people had accumulated surpluses, but individually they were not as well off in this respect as they were a year ago. Here is how the savings accounts have stood during the past ten years:

YEAR	NO. OF BANKS	DEPOSITORS	AGGREGATE DEPOSITS	AVERAGE
1911	1,884	9,597,185	\$4,212,583,598	\$438.93
1910	1,759	9,142,908	4,070,486,247	445.20
1909	1,703	8,831,863	3,713,405,710	420.45
1908	1,453	8,705,848	3,660,553,945	420.47
1907	1,415	8,588,811	3,690,078,945	429.64
1906	1,319	8,027,192	3,482,137,198	433.79
1905	1,237	7,696,229	3,261,236,119	423.74
1904	1,157	7,305,443	3,060,178,611	418.89
1903	1,078	7,035,228	2,935,204,845	417.21
1902	1,036	6,666,672	2,750,177,290	412.53

That is not such a bad record, after all. It might be "respectfully referred" to some of those folks who are continually hinting at the neglect of the "savings habit" of this country, and pointing to France as the model of the world in that regard. And if there be added to these savings deposits the absorption by individual investors of the new issues

of various kinds of stocks and bonds, which it is quite safe to say have averaged close to three-quarters of a billion a year during the decade, the result is one over which there is some excuse for becoming patriotic.

Where the Habit Is Indulged in Most

CONSIDERING the returns of the country's savings deposits geographically, it is found that during the year there were substantial increases in every section save the Middle West, which showed a decrease of \$17,640,000. Out on the Pacific Coast, that wonderful part of the United States which has been developing so rapidly that one wonders a little bit at the people there stopping long enough to take thought of the always possible "rainy day," deposits increased \$28,000,000—from \$365,840,865 in 1910 to \$393,894,543. But an extraordinary increase in the number of depositors in that section served to bring down the average of individual deposits from \$733 to \$500. In 1910 the Pacific States reported less than half a million people with savings bank accounts. This year they boast of 786,816. Aggregate deposits in other sections compare as follows:

	1911	1910
New England.....	\$1,372,883,365	\$1,325,769,145
Eastern.....	1,981,013,057	1,919,393,102
Southern.....	93,014,689	70,267,061
Middle West.....	358,699,656	376,240,410
Western.....	13,078,285	12,975,664
Pacific.....	393,894,543	365,840,865

Of these various subdivisions, the Middle Western States lead all the rest in the number of savings institutions. There are 816 reporting to the Comptroller from Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa, compared with 421 reporting from New England, 242 from the Eastern States, 197 from the Southern States, 154 from the Pacific, and 54 from the Western States. One can readily imagine people in New York City and Brooklyn, whose savings banks hold nearly one-third of the aggregate deposits of the country—in Boston, Albany, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Cleveland, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, St. Paul, and San Francisco, the other big centers of savings deposits—asking how their neighbors in so many of the other States can possibly get along with so few such institutions at hand. The inadequacy of the number in some places is indicated by the fact that there are no less than eighteen States possessing fewer than ten savings banks, five with only two, and several with

but one each. Indeed there are a few that have no savings banks at all. It is the filling of this void that affords one of the many excuses for the existence of the Postal Savings Banks. How well those institutions are fulfilling their mission in this respect will be impossible to say until more complete returns from them become available. At last account they had received aggregate deposits somewhat in excess of \$2,000,000—a satisfactory showing considering the comparatively short time the system has been in working order.

Is the Time Ripe for Investment?

IT has long been the habit of those who want to sell bonds to keep their eyes on the savings banks and insurance companies to see what attitude they take toward the market for securities. Such institutions are masters in the science of investment. They observe financial affairs closely at all times, have at their finger tips a great mass of experience to guide them in making their selections, and generally are quick to take advantage of prices that look attractive. Of course, they are seldom, if ever, entirely "out of the market" as the bankers say, but during the last few months they have not been buying bonds to such an extent as to furnish the dealers with a great deal of encouragement. Observers say that now, however, they are beginning to "nibble" and that this is one of the signs of a brightening outlook for the investment market.

One reason for the more favorable attitude of the savings banks in this respect is, of course, the strengthening of their position as a whole in the matter of deposits as shown by the Comptroller of Currency's report. Those in charge of these institutions feel, in other words, that the time has about arrived when they can begin to seek for the profitable employment of a part of those deposits.

Prudent individual investors might find it to their advantage to take the hint from the big institutions in times like the present, not only with a view to being able to enter the market before all of the bargains are gone, but also to determine what are the safest securities to buy.

Market Prices

AS usual, after every severe decline in the prices of investment securities such as the one which culminated late in September, the bond market is being pointed to as an example of steadiness.

How many people there are who profit by the comparisons which it is always possible to make at such times between bonds and stocks, especially those issues which are actively traded in in the public market, it is impossible to estimate. Undoubtedly their number is large, for it is not recorded that the market ever passed through an extended period of falling prices without scores of inexperienced investors in shares taking fright at little more than the daily records of quotations, and finally disposing of their holdings at or near the lowest points of the decline. Some are made distrustful of securities in general. Others turn eventually to bonds as the more stable things to own, even though these may reduce the annual income by one or two per cent.

Of course, there is another side to the picture where the experienced investor in high-grade stocks is the central figure. He understands that in such a market the quotations recorded on the "tape" are, for the most part at least, to be interpreted otherwise than as measuring changes in underlying values from day to day or from week to week. Therefore, he sees no cause to worry—he collects his dividends when they fall due, and tells you confidently that prices will go up again sometime. He may even invest more money at the lower prices.

But there are a good many people who from temperament alone are unable to acquire experience of that sort. For such there is no gainsaying the fact that listed stocks, no matter how good they may be intrinsically, are not desirable investments. As between the man who buys stocks in that category and the man who buys good bonds, the relative stability of the latter's investment position in times of unsettled markets is shown by the following table:

STOCKS	PRICE SEP- TEMBER 29	HIGH SINCE JAN I	DECLINE PER \$1000
Atchison common.....	99	116 ⁵ / ₈	\$176.25
Pennsylvania.....	118 ³ / ₄	130 ¹ / ₈	113.75
Southern Pacific.....	104 ¹ / ₂	126 ³ / ₈	218.75
Union Pacific common.....	153 ¹ / ₂	192 ³ / ₈	388.75
Northern Pacific.....	110 ³ / ₄	137 ⁷ / ₈	271.25
Great Northern.....	119	140	210.00
Louisville & Nashville.....	136 ¹ / ₂	156 ¹ / ₂	200.00
Lehigh Valley.....	151	181 ¹ / ₈	301.25
Delaware & Hudson.....	159 ¹ / ₂	174 ⁷ / ₈	153.75
Chicago Northwestern Com.....	138 ¹ / ₈	150 ¹ / ₂	123.75
Average decline per \$1000.....			\$215.75

BONDS	PRICE SEP- TEMBER 29	HIGH SINCE JAN I	DECLINE PER \$1000
Atchison Adjustment 4's....	91 ¹ / ₂	92 ¹ / ₂	\$10.00
St. Paul Debenture 4's.....	92	93 ¹ / ₈	11.25
Big Four General 4's.....	92 ¹ / ₄	95	27.50
Colo. & Southern First 4's....	95 ¹ / ₂	97 ¹ / ₂	20.00
Gt. Nor.—C. B. & Q. Col. 4's	95 ³ / ₄	98	22.50
N. Y. Central Debenture 4's	92 ³ / ₄	94 ¹ / ₂	17.50
N. & W. Divisional & First 4's	92 ³ / ₈	94	16.25
So. Pacific—San Francisco Ter- minal 4's.....	90 ⁵ / ₈	93 ¹ / ₈	25.00
Oregon Short Line Refunding 4's.....	92 ¹ / ₂	95	25.00
Wis. Central First 4's.....	93 ¹ / ₄	93 ⁵ / ₈	3.75
Average decline per \$1,000.....			\$17.88

The figures indicate for stocks an average decline from the high prices of the year twelve times as great as the average decline in bonds for each \$1000 invested. At the September prices the average yield on the ten stocks mentioned was about 5.80 per cent., and on the bonds it was about 4.50 per cent. The difference of more than 1¹/₄ per cent. sacrificed by the purchaser of the latter kind of securities might be called the "price current" for increased safety and stability of market value.

It is not to be assumed, of course, that the so-called "standard" issues of bonds, of which those named in the table are fairly typical, are the only kinds of securities whose market is little affected by temporary influences. Mortgages, for example, possess the characteristic of stability to a greater degree than any other form of investment; municipal bonds, with some exceptions, are scarcely less satisfactory in this respect; unlisted public service corporation bonds have an excellent market record; and it is even asserted by authorities that the good dividend-paying public utility stocks experienced less than a two per cent. decline in the recent slump. To these might be added certain of the best issues of unlisted industrial preferred stocks, and from such a selection it would be possible to pick for the conservative buyer, as a well-diversified investment for permanent income, securities that would stand on their own merits and with market prices never varying to the extent of throwing the investor into a state of alarm. Securities like these are not readily convertible into cash under all circumstances, but other merits which they possess will be found to outweigh that consideration in the cases of at least six investors out of every ten.



THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR IN HISTORY¹

THE STORY TOLD BY A PARTICIPANT

THERE are two outstanding features in the book on the Spanish-American War, by Rear-Admiral French E. Chadwick, U. S. N., retired. One is the evidence that we are already so far away from the war that one of the strongest partisans in the unfortunate Sampson-Schley controversy can write an exhaustive history of that conflict without dragging in any phase of the dispute; and the other is that, although the author is a naval man, he does not hesitate to criticize the army attitude toward the method of prosecuting hostilities at several stages of the war. This criticism deals with the manner of subjecting the soldiers in Cuba to certain hardships in marching, with the failure to provide the men after debarking with tobacco, and with bringing a large part of the army into position for the battle of San Juan, by one very rough and narrow road; and with many other details of operations during the Santiago campaign.

Nowhere has a more serious charge been brought against the conduct of the land operations than that made by Admiral Chadwick in Chapter III, Volume II, when he aims to show that but for an inexplicable exhibition of obtuseness on the part of the United States army the land battle at Santiago might have been avoided and the lives lost in the engagement of San Juan and the subsequent fighting might have been saved. The responsibility for the killed and wounded in the battle of San Juan the naval authority lays at the door of the military authorities who, he believes, failed to understand the relation of the American fleet off the harbor to the movement projected against Santiago by way of the El Pozo road and San Juan Hill. If they had known the ability of the fleet's guns to render untenable the position of the Spaniards in the San Juan Hill region, the latter could not have held a position there and the opposition to the advance of the American troops would have been difficult to make, through a want of proper terrain for defence. Admiral Chadwick's vigorous words on this point leave no room to doubt that he believes a terrible mistake was made by Shafter's army in not taking advantage of the proximity of the fleet and that the lives so gallantly given for the great Republic on July 1, 1898, were sacrificed upon the altar of ignorance. On page 57 of the second volume, Admiral Chadwick says:

"It would have been impossible to hold in position a force occupying such an extent of ground as would have been necessary for the utilization of, say, nine thousand men, only two and a half miles from the sea occupied by a fleet in which there were over one hundred guns which could have been brought to bear upon the position. . . . Moreover, it may be said that had the admiral [Sampson] been informed of the situation before the battle to come later, these guns could have been used against the Spanish position on San Juan Hill . . . and the situation made untenable. Had this been done, it is probable that no action would have taken place outside of Santiago and that the Spanish

troops would have become so demoralized that the American troops could have entered the city at once with little or no difficulty."

From June 27 the Spaniards had been busy throwing up the entrenchments on the San Juan elevations from which was to come the murderous fire that was to send so many Americans to their death on July 1. Yet day and night from the easy distance of eight thousand yards, between four and five miles, half a hundred guns could have dropped a continuous shower of shell upon the position, making it absolutely untenable. It was impossible for Sampson to know of these possibilities latent in his guns to stop the war then and there without information from the general commanding the land forces, and the author kindly suggests that the possibility of such accuracy in long-range firing had not occurred to the land commander. Though Admiral Chadwick blames the system of army administration then existing for this lack of coördination between the army and the navy, and especially ascribes it to the want of a general staff system in both the army and the navy departments, still the general reader may have the unpleasant feeling that the science of ballistics had reached a degree of development that did not call for a general staff to make apparent the range of the modern ship's guns or to suggest their adaptability to the necessities of the invading forces.

Not only here was an opportunity lost to end the war without the loss of life that eventually occurred. Admiral Chadwick feels that in the plan of Admiral Sampson to make an immediate attack upon Havana with the fleet at the opening of the war lay an easy way to give the United States so commanding a position in Cuba as to make further resistance futile if not ridiculous. If the army failed to make use of the navy's guns to keep the Spaniards away from San Juan Hill, the author holds the Navy Department remiss this time for having interposed an objection to attacking Havana, that was wholly unjustified either from a military or a humanitarian viewpoint. Sampson had shown that the guns of the fleet could be trained upon the city in such a way as to make its surrender certain; but the Navy Department put a veto upon this plan through a communication sent to Admiral Sampson on July 6, 1898, by Secretary of the Navy Long who gave two reasons why such an attack should not be made, the first of which was thus phrased: "There may be no United States troops to occupy any captured stronghold, or to protect from riot and arson until after the dry season begins about the first of October."

In several other places in these two volumes the author refers to certain communications of Spanish officials as "amazing." One wonders how Admiral Chadwick would like to qualify the above reason if he felt as free to do so as in the case of the

¹ The Relations of the United States and Spain. The Spanish-American War. By French Ensor Chadwick, Rear Admiral, U. S. Navy, retired. 2 Vols. Scribner's. 926 pp. \$7.

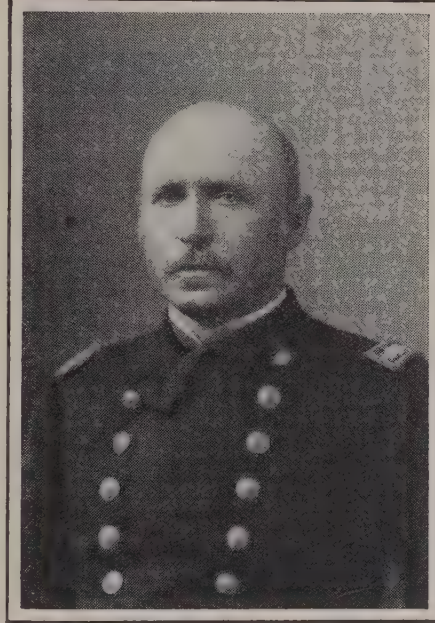
Spanish dispatches. However, he does call the reason "invalid," on the ground that "no commander can allow himself to forego a great and decisive military success such as the capture of Havana would have been for fear of 'riot and arson' within. Strasburg and Paris were bombarded nearly a generation before in the Franco-Prussian war without reference to the destruction whether of life or property." But turning from historical analogies, the author finds such an attack would have been warranted by the speedier end it would have put to the war and by the lessening of the casualties of battle, "the truly humané thing being," he says, "to do that at all risks which will certainly bring an early end to hostilities."

Extraordinary ineptitude was shown by the Spanish authorities in their management of the war, but after reading Admiral Chadwick's analysis of the treatment by the administration in Washington of the fifty-million-dollar appropriation for national defense, one is inclined to believe that nothing done or left undone by the Spaniards could have exceeded the blind fatuity that had prevented the quartermaster, commissary, and medical departments up to April 23, 1898, from going outside their ordinary routine and from profiting, as they should have profited, from the liberality of the American people. Even at this remove of time, Admiral Chadwick is stirred deeply by such a legal construction as that which started that multitude of brave American soldiers toward the grave, victims of typhoid and other fevers and of the want of proper medical attention, and he writes thus strongly of that mistake: "Such too frequently is the lawyer in administration. It is difficult to understand an interpretation which could separate shelter, clothing, food, and medicine from the gun as part of the preparation for defense. To this unwise decision which sent troops to the tropics in the heavy clothing worn in Mon-

tana, and with nothing which could be called shelter, must be laid much of the suffering and death in the Santiago army." Of the special war appropriation much had been used in preparation by the ordnance and engineer and signal-service departments, and, to the author, "provision for the healthful support of men who might be called into service and who were to use the guns, projectiles, and powder which it was ruled could be bought would seem as vital an element of defense as these latter."

Admiral Chadwick is singularly well equipped for writing of the Spanish War. He was captain of the United States armored cruiser *New York*, the flagship of Rear Admiral Sampson, commander-in-chief of the North Atlantic Squadron during the Spanish War, and at the same time the admiral's chief of staff. He had also sat as a member of the Court of Inquiry that investigated at Havana, just before the opening of the war, the sinking of the battleship *Maine*. While his close and cordial relations with the admiral make it natural that he should be tempted to dwell with some emphasis upon the abilities of his superior he is able to do so without reopening any of the phases of the naval controversy that raged so bitterly on the conclusion of peace. The first volume begins abruptly but agreeably with the movements of the North Atlantic Squadron a few weeks before the war, and the history ends with the conclusion of the treaty of peace.

In many respects this is the best history of the Spanish War yet written. The author prepared himself for the task by extensive study of the diplomatic relations between the United States and Spain, the fruit of these researches having appeared two years ago in a volume of more than six hundred pages, the purpose of that book being to afford a preliminary chapter to the history of the war as it now comes from the press.



ADMIRAL FRENCH E. CHADWICK

(A gallant participant in the Spanish-American War who has written the most complete and authoritative account of the struggle)



THE NEW BOOKS

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

THE English translation of Federico Garlanda's book "The New Italy"¹ appears at a very auspicious moment. Signor Garlanda, who is a professor in the Royal University at Rome, paid a visit to the United States some years ago. Upon his return he began the publication of a series of articles severely criticizing the administrative methods of the Italian Government, and calling attention to the present unsatisfactory conditions in the kingdom for which the government is, he claims, largely responsible. So frank and uncomplimentary were many of these comments, that the author could not get a publisher for them until he hit upon the device of claiming that he was merely the translator of this series of "Letters of a Yankee," written from home to his friends in America. Under this guise he secured the publication of the book. Mr. Garlanda reviews Italian history and shows how, in his opinion, the government has made a number of fatal errors, chief among which are centralization and bureaucracy. The Italian fiscal system, he says, is all wrong,—especially taxation. Education and art are on a false basis. The courts are dominated by a "false sentimentalism." Literature and the press are unprogressive, and the efficiency of the army is largely on paper. To be sure, he does not spare some American habits and customs, slyly and by indirection indicating their weak points. Italian family life, he insists, is the best part of the Italian nation. It is "one of the most healthy and firmly constituted in the world." The translation of this volume is by M. E. Wood.

It was to be expected that in such a study of "The Soul of the Far East,"² as Professor Percival Lowell would write, the first point presented would be the differences between the Oriental and Occidental systems of life and living. To the mind's eye the country of the Orient, says Professor Lowell, "is one huge, comical antithesis of our own." Indeed, he goes on to point out, to one anxious of conforming to the manners and customs of the country, "the only road to right lies in following unswervingly that course which his inherited instincts assure him to be wrong." And yet, "these people are human beings." Keeping these two facts in mind, the humanity and the difference of the Asiatic, we have the key to the strange ideas, customs, and habits of Oriental peoples as they are shown in their religious observances, their literature, art, language, and family life. Dr. Lowell's book "The Soul of the Far East" is illustrated.

Quite a different book on the East is "Surface Japan, Short Notes of a Swift Survey,"³ by Don C. Seitz. This book, finely illustrated in color, is a graphically, sympathetically written, account of a journey recently made by Mr. Seitz through Japan. His impressions may be summed up in the last sentence of the book, "I saw simply a smiling country, full of amiable, orderly people

striving to gain not the mastery but the esteem of mankind, and wishing only to stand foursquare to all the winds that blow!"

The story of the mountain scaling experiences of Miss Annie S. Peck, probably the most successful woman climber in the world, now appears in book form under the title "A Search for the Apex of America."⁴ Miss Peck tells of her experiences and achievements in Peru and Bolivia, and of her ascent of Mt. Huascarán, "with some observations on the country and people below." The volume is illustrated from photographs taken by the author. Miss Peck writes in a pleasing, interesting way, and her book is the story of the adventures of a plucky, persevering woman. It is well worth reading.

It has been said that the Near East has been the seat and the reason for more wars than any other section of the habitable globe. This fact—for it is a fact—is the theme upon which Mr. H. Charles Woods has written his book "The Danger Zone of Europe."⁵ In this zone Turkey and the Balkans, the latter including Greece, have been on the verge of open war for years and actually in a state of internal war for even a longer period. For many reasons, political, economic, racial, religious, this region will perhaps always remain a source of danger to the peace of the world. Mr. Woods, who recently returned from two extended tours through Southeastern Europe, made since the advent of the constitutional régime in Turkey, points out these reasons and considers, among other topics, the Young Turk government, the Turkish army, the Albanian, Armenian, and Cretan questions, Bulgarian relations to the Porte, and the probable future of Servia, Montenegro, and Bosnia. The volume is illustrated with many views and portraits, chiefly of the statesmen and politicians who have been instrumental in bringing about recent changes in the Near East.

A new volume in the series of hunters' narratives, for which the house of Scribner is distinguished, is Charles Sheldon's account of his explorations for wild sheep in "The Wilderness of the Upper Yukon."⁶ Mr. Sheldon tells us that nearly all the mountains on which he hunted, with the exception of Plateau Mountain and those near Watson River, were untrodden by the foot of white man or Indian. In this primeval wilderness the sheep had been practically undisturbed. Mr. Sheldon was compelled, therefore, to make actual explorations in pursuit of his quest. His book naturally contains descriptions of the country that he traversed, and so it has developed into something much more important than a hunting story. The volume is well supplied with photographic illustrations.

A new book of travel by the author of "A Vagabond Journey Around the World," Harry A. Franck, describes "Four Months Afoot in Spain."⁷ This young American globe trotter recently

¹The New Italy. By Federico Garlanda. Translated by M. E. Wood. Putnam. 406 pp. \$2.

²The Soul of the Far East. By Percival Lowell. The Macmillan Company. 226 pp., ill. \$1.60.

³Surface Japan. By Don C. Seitz. Harper & Brothers. 158 pp., ill. \$1.60.

⁴A Search for the Apex of America. By Annie S. Peck. Dodd, Mead & Co., 370 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁵The Danger Zone of Europe. By H. Charles Woods. Little, Brown & Co., 328 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁶The Wilderness of the Upper Yukon. By Charles Sheldon. Scribner's. 354 pp., ill. \$3.

⁷Four Months Afoot in Spain. By Harry A. Franck. Century Company. 370 pp., ill. \$2.

covered a thousand miles of the Iberian Peninsula on foot, and twice that distance by third-class rail. It is with the purpose of recording some of the new facts and impressions which were brought to his mind that this volume has been written, and also with the idea of answering the question "often put to me since my return: how can a man make such a journey on \$172?" Mr. Franck has a sense of humor and humanity, and his experiences as related make up an interesting story. The volume is illustrated chiefly from photographs, new and good, taken by the author himself.

Another book of impressions of travel in Spain under the general title "Spanish Sketches"¹ has been put together with some fine color illustrations by Edward Penfield. The text complements the illustrations, and is written easily in an almost conversational tone.

A very readable volume on the "lure of Mexico" has been made by Wallace Gillpatrick, out of a series of sketches contributed by him some years or so ago to the *Mexican Herald*, under the title "The Man Who Likes Mexico."² A casual trip to the country south of the Rio Grande for business purposes was stretched out into nearly six years of travel and adventure. Mr. Gillpatrick takes the Mexican people at their face value and looks for the bright rather than the dark things about them. He finds a good deal more that is sunny in the people, as well as in the climate, than most Americans who have written on our neighboring republic. Excellent illustrations add to the attractiveness of the volume.

A book, chiefly of antiquarian interest, but furnishing an excellent study in the development of travel as a means of education, is Mr. E. S. Bates' "Touring in 1600,"³ "an anecdotal and hitherto unprinted account of European travel in Elizabethan times with comments on the 'grand tour,' inns, highwaymen, sea travel, piccaros, and all circumstances of this picturesque period,"—and with some entertaining illustrations reproduced from old prints.

The "Labrador Journal"⁴ of Captain Cartwright, dealing with the experiences of that pioneer settler for sixteen years, beginning with 1770, has been edited by Dr. C. W. Townsend. There are many illustrations and an introduction by Dr. Grenfell.

The study of "A Voyage to the Arctic in the Whaler Aurora,"⁵ by David Moore Lindsay, contains an account of the search for the Greely expedition in which the *Aurora* participated. Seal and whale fishing are described, and there are some graphic pictures.

BIOGRAPHY AND RECOLLECTIONS

During the past summer, the American people, without regard to sectarian opinions, have joined in spirit in the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of Cardinal Gibbons' assumption of the Red Hat. In the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the fiftieth of his priesthood, the Cardinal is one of the eminent public men of America. It is therefore fitting that there should appear, at this

time, the published story of his life. The biography, by Dr. Allen S. Will, is a comprehensive story.⁶ The account of Cardinal Gibbons' life from the date of his birth in Baltimore, July 23, 1834, up to the official celebration in that city during the summer, presents a very human, active, broad-minded personality of exalted ideals, shrewd, practical insight into life, and robust American patriotism. Dr. Will's volume is illustrated with portraits and other pictures.

One of the fascinating "by products" of Professor Guglielmo Ferrero's study of Roman history, the chief result of which we saw several years ago in his monumental work "The Greatness and Decline of Rome," is a recently issued volume on "The Women of the Cæsars."⁷ Picking out the most dramatic period in Roman history, Dr. Ferrero, who is personally probably the most distinguished of living historians, considered, in his vivid, scholarly way, the lives, aims, ambitions, and achievements of those imperial ladies who contributed so much to the history of Rome. The general status of women in ancient Rome and the attitude of the Romans toward marriage is first considered. Then there are chapters on Livia and Julia, on the daughters of Agrippa, on Tiberius and Agrippa, on the sisters of Caligula and the marriage of Messalina, and on Agrippa, the mother of Nero. An excellent picture of the domestic life and the family customs of the Romans is given by this volume, which is illustrated by reproductions of old paintings, statues, and coins, as well as some drawings by André Castaigne.

It was to be expected that before long Mr. James Huneker, in his brilliant literary journey through the history of music, would reach Franz Liszt.⁸ There is, of course, an immense amount of material in Liszt's life for such a biographical sketch as Mr. Huneker knows so well how to write. The real and the legendary Liszt, his art and his character, his frailties and his genius, even his favorite pupils are the themes of chapters. There are a number of exceedingly interesting illustrations, most of them, if we mistake not, entirely new to print.

A most readable book of reminiscences is Mr. William C. Hudson's "Random Recollections of an Old Political Reporter."⁹ Mr. Hudson's forty-four years' experience as a staff writer on political subjects for the Brooklyn *Daily Eagle* qualifies him to write with a sure touch on the political history of his time. However, the author's purpose is not merely to write a political history in the accepted and conventional form, since there are others who can do that as well as he. But Mr. Hudson has himself been an active participant in some of the most important developments of party politics during the past thirty years. When he recalls the personalities and events associated with the career of Grover Cleveland, he writes as from "the inside." His book is a very real and vital contribution to the history of his time.

It happens that another book of recollections¹⁰ published this autumn covers almost identically the same period as that covered by Mr. Hudson's memories of an "Old Political Reporter." Colonel

¹Spanish Sketches. By Edward Penfield. Scribner's. 146 pp., ill. \$7.

²The Man Who Likes Mexico. By Wallace Gillpatrick. Century Company. 374 pp., ill. \$2.

³Touring in 1600. By E. S. Bates. Houghton Mifflin Co. 418 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴Captain Cartwright and His Labrador Journal. Edited by Dr. Charles Wendell Townsend. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. 385 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵A Voyage to the Arctic in the Whaler Aurora. By David Moore Lindsay. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. 232 pp., ill. \$2.

⁶Life of Cardinal Gibbons. By Allen S. Will. John Murphy Company. 414 pp., ill. \$2.

⁷The Women of the Cæsars. By Guglielmo Ferrero. The Century Company. 337 pp., ill. \$2.

⁸Franz Liszt. By James Huneker. Scribner's. 458 pp., ill. \$2.

⁹Random Recollections. By William C. Hudson. Cupples & Leon Co. 271 pp., ill. \$1.25.

¹⁰Memories of the White House. By Colonel W. H. Crook. Little, Brown & Co. 308 pp., ill. \$2.

W. H. Crook, who has been in continuous service at the White House for forty-six years, has related the home life of our Presidents from Lincoln to Roosevelt. This is a side of the White House life that has received slight attention in literature, yet it has a fascinating interest for all Americans. Colonel Crook is not concerned so much with the political or public aspects of the Presidential careers on which he touches, but it is his desire rather to give, in his unpretentious book, some clue to the personal and intimate relations of the Presidents in their family life. Colonel Crook began as the bodyguard of President Lincoln. Naturally the most interesting anecdotal material of the volume is contained in the chapter devoted to Lincoln. Colonel Crook's relations with each succeeding administration have enabled him to portray the social life of the Presidents and their families in a strikingly realistic way.

One of the most useful and suggestive biographies of the year is that of J. L. M. Curry, the Southern educational statesman, written by President Edwin A. Alderman and Armistead C. Gordon.¹ It seems that Dr. Curry left a great mass of unpublished papers, journals, and correspondence, and the task of his biographers has been largely one of selection from this abundant material. Dr. Curry is remembered at the North chiefly because of his important service as general agent of the Peabody fund, and for his important work throughout the South in the interest of education. He was American Minister to Spain in President Cleveland's first administration, and was the author of numerous political writings and official reports. During the last twenty years of his life he frequently addressed the legislatures of the Southern States on the subject of education. The change that has come about in his lifetime is indicated by the fact that when Dr. Curry began his campaign for the public schools in 1881, the total school revenue of the South amounted to only \$6,000,000, whereas in the year 1910 the expenditure approximated \$38,000,000. The change in public sentiment that has worked this transformation is due in no small degree to the zealous and intelligent efforts of Dr. Curry.

In the Iowa Biographical Series, edited by B. F. Shambaugh, Louis Pelzer contributes a life of Henry Dodge,² Governor of the original Territory of Wisconsin (which embraced the country that was subsequently erected into the Territory of Iowa) and in later life United States Senator from the State of Wisconsin. Henry Dodge lived the life of the typical pioneer of his time, having been born at Vincennes, Ind., in 1782, passing his youth and early manhood in Missouri, commanding the Mounted Rangers in the incessant frontier warfare with the Indians, exploiting lead mines of Missouri, Illinois, and Michigan Territory, and

later becoming one of the founders of a substantial American commonwealth.

THE AMERICAN DRAMA

Although the literary critic "contents himself in the belief that there is no American drama, and never has been," Mr. Montrose J. Moses has written a volume designed to meet "a want which some day will be felt." Because "the American drama is a fact, because it has a body whatever the value of its spirit," Mr. Moses has attempted to emphasize "the individual contributions to the idea of an American drama, to summarize the striking qualities of dramatists who are original in position, to enumerate the social and economic causes affecting the theater, and through the theater, limiting the dramatist's work." The volume is illustrated with portraits.³

REFERENCE BOOKS

The fifth edition of "Wer Ist's," the German "Who's Who," the issue for 1911, comes to us from the press of H. A. Ludwig Dagner, Leipsic. It is much enlarged and improved over preceding editions, containing in all more than 1700 pages.

The proceedings⁴ in full of the International Congress (held at Washington, December 15-17, 1910), by the American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, have been brought out in neat book form. All the speeches are reported. There is an appendix and an index.

It is not the practice of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS to publish in this department notices of technical law books, but we gladly make an exception in the case of the "Index-Digest of the Reports and Rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission,"⁵ by A. B. Van Buren, of the Wilmington, N. C., Bar. There is ample reason for exception, since this work is not merely a handbook for the use of lawyers, but is intended to meet the requirements of railroad officials and of shippers. Under the enlarged powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission, resulting from the passage of the Hepburn bill in 1906, the decisions of the commission are of even greater importance than formerly. Mr. Van Buren has made a simple and orderly arrangement of the points involved in the various decisions, with cross references to every case involving the same principles. Supplements to the original volume, published from time to time, bring the material well up to date. The last supplement issued bears the date of October 1, 1911. The book has been commended, not only by attorneys and railroad officials, but by business men who have had occasion to make use of it as a manual of information for shippers.

¹The American Dramatist. By Montrose J. Moses. Little, Brown & Co., 338 pp., ill. \$2.50.

²Proceedings of International Conference. By American Society for Judicial Settlement of International Disputes. Baltimore: The Waverly Press. 400 pp. \$1.

³Index-Digest of the Reports and Rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission. By A. B. Van Buren. Raleigh, N. C.: Edwards & Broughton Printing Co. 213 pp. \$5.

¹J. L. M. Curry: A Biography. By Edwin A. Alderman & Armistead C. Gordon. Macmillan Company. 468 pp., port. \$2.

²Henry Dodge. By Louis Pelzer. The State Historical Society of Iowa. 266 pp., port.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

CONTENTS FOR DECEMBER, 1911

The Late Joseph Pulitzer.....	Frontispiece	Pius X and His Reign.....	687
The Progress of the World—		By ELBERT F. BALDWIN	
The Struggle for Liberty and Progress.....	643	<i>With portrait</i>	
Politics and Leadership.....	644	The New American Cardinals.....	692
Parties, and Real Issues.....	644	By WALTER DWIGHT, S. J.	
The "Presidential Year" Has Arrived.....	644	<i>With portraits</i>	
Let the Common Voter Be Active.....	645	Ebb and Flow of the Immigration Tide..	697
The Presidency and Its Burdens.....	645	By HERBERT FRANCIS SHERWOOD	
Power and Its Misuse.....	646	<i>With illustrations</i>	
The Office and the Man.....	646	Preparations on the Pacific for Panama.	705
Congress Must Assert Itself.....	647	By AGNES C. LAUT	
Pressure Upon Congress.....	648	<i>With illustrations</i>	
Officials in the Thinking Role.....	648	The American on Guard in China.....	714
The Senate Hearings on Trusts.....	649	By WILLIAM T. ELLIS	
"Trust-Busting" in Practice.....	650	<i>With portrait of Edward Thomas Williams</i>	
Tariff as a Live Issue.....	650	The Chinese Revolt: A Survey.....	717
Elections Last Month.....	651	By ADACHI KINNOBUKE	
Philadelphia's Healthful Discontent.....	652	<i>With map</i>	
Cincinnati and National Politics.....	652	China and the Chinese in Newest Books.	723
Other Ohio Cities.....	653	World Movement for Woman Suffrage.	725
Schenectady and Los Angeles.....	653	By IDA HUSTED HARPER	
Woodrow Wilson and New Jersey.....	654	Leading Articles of the Month—	
Republican Aspirants.....	654	French Railway Development in West Africa	730
Party Machinery Needs Reform.....	655	The Dismemberment of French Africa.....	731
The Move to Dissolve the "Steel Trust".....	656	Constitutional Reform in France.....	732
A Statement from Mr. Roosevelt.....	658	A New System of Gas Illumination in Paris.....	733
A Point of Weakness in the Government's Case.....	660	The League between Germany and Austria.....	734
Has the Steel Corporation Controlled Prices?.....	660	Has the German Army Been Overrated?.....	735
The Steel Suit and the Steel Market.....	660	Why There Is No Swiss National Art.....	736
Beef Packers Attack the Sherman Law.....	660	Turkey's Determination to Resist.....	737
The Tobacco Trust Plan Approved.....	661	The Senussiye Brotherhood.....	739
Attempts to Keep Up Cotton Prices.....	661	Home Problems of the Italian Premier.....	741
Our Navy on Exhibition.....	662	The World's Loftiest Telephone Line.....	742
Census and Reapportionment in Canada.....	663	With the Lighthouse-Builders.....	743
Mr. Borden's Program.....	663	A Great Japanese University.....	745
President Madero Inaugurated.....	664	The University and the Public Service.....	746
British Parliamentary Affairs.....	664	Howard Pyle, Artist-Author.....	748
Cabinet Changes.....	665	<i>With portraits and other illustrations</i>	
Retirement of Balfour.....	665	Notes on Business and Investments.....	749
A. Bonar Law Succeeds.....	666	Everyman's Library: A Democratic Edu-	
King George's Visit to India.....	667	cational Institution.....	753
The Morocco Bargain.....	667	By EDWIN BJORKMAN	
New African Railroads.....	669	Biography and Reminiscence.....	756
The Turco-Italian War.....	670	Holiday Books and New Editions.....	762
Why Not Submit It to The Hague?.....	670	The Season's Books for Children.....	764
Mr. Stead's Plan.....	672	<i>With illustrations</i>	
The Alleged Italian Atrocities.....	672		
End of the Manchu Regime.....	673		
The Puzzle of Chinese Names.....	674		
Progress of the Revolution.....	674		
Edict of the Baby Emperor.....	675		
Some of the Personalities.....	676		
Recent Progress in Aviation.....	677		
New University Presidents.....	677		
<i>With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations</i>			
Record of Current Events.....	678		
<i>With illustrations</i>			
Cartoons of the Month.....	682		

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From the painting by Sargent

THE LATE JOSEPH PULITZER

(Joseph Pulitzer, who died on October 29, at the age of sixty-four, was justly accorded a foremost place among American journalists. A native of Budapest, Hungary, he came to America at the age of seventeen and plunged at once into the restless life of the new world. It was the last year of our Civil War, and young Pulitzer joined a cavalry regiment and saw service under Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley. After the war he went to St. Louis, studied law, and was admitted to the bar, but soon abandoned that profession for a reporter's job on the *Westliche Post*, a German newspaper of which Carl Schurz was chief editor. Later Pulitzer became managing editor and part proprietor of the paper. In the meantime he went into politics, was elected to the Missouri Legislature, and joined the Liberal Republican movement of 1872. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention in 1874. In 1878 he bought the *St. Louis Dispatch* and united it with the *Evening Post* as the *Post-Dispatch*. In 1883 he bought the *New York World* from Jay Gould and entirely transformed the character of that newspaper. Within four years, as a result of overwork, he suffered a breakdown in health and the gradual loss of his sight. In 1890 he was compelled to relinquish the active editorship of the *World*, but to the last the policy of the paper was guided and controlled by him. For the past twenty years Mr. Pulitzer has spent his summers at Bar Harbor and his winters at Jekyll Island, Ga., or on the Riviera; for three years he has spent most of his time on his yacht *Liberty*. Mr. Pulitzer amply endowed a school of journalism in connection with Columbia University. His sons, Ralph and Joseph Pulitzer, will control the *World* property.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*The Struggle
for Liberty and
Progress*

Only a few generations ago the ordinary person was not expected to give time or thought to public matters. Kings ruled by divine right, and a governing class had prerogatives which it exercised for its own benefit. The vast majority accepted the political and governmental arrangements to which they were subject, and occupied themselves in their own realm of private affairs. They were very thankful if they were not too much oppressed in their persons and their property, or molested in the quiet pursuit of happiness. Unfortunately the old system brought comfort and personal security to very few people. Gradually there made its way in the world a new sense of personal right and a new conception of liberty. There followed great public events like the American and French revolutions. The divine right of kings began to be questioned. The prerogatives of governing classes were assailed and steadily impaired. Theories of government demanding the "greatest good of the greatest number" began to prevail. "Public opinion" evolved itself, and began to criticize, then slowly to construct. Public opinion meant merely that a large number of people had become interested in general affairs, and that they were judging things by the test of the public welfare. They found that private prosperity was based upon good government.

*A World-
wide Move-
ment*

These movements of the people have not been simultaneous throughout the world, but they rest upon the same deep principles of human liberty and social progress. This is what the great struggle going on in China just now signifies to uncounted millions of men. Persia and Turkey have yielded enough to a growing force of public

opinion to have created the beginnings of representative government. Russia and Japan are, each in its own way, giving importance to the private individual and lifting him into citizenship. In England they are about to adopt full manhood suffrage and to give Ireland home rule. In Mexico they are struggling against painful odds to improve governmental conditions and to lift the masses of people into a better and more intelligent life. And from New York to California the reform movement in politics means that same thing in essence, though the details are different.

*The Need
of
Vigilance*

In the most enlightened countries, even to-day, a majority of the people are almost wholly absorbed in their own private affairs. There are great numbers who are always concerned about public affairs for their own personal reasons; yet there are always some people—an increasing multitude—who are patriotic enough to be deeply concerned about public affairs because they seek the best good of their fellow men. It has become a necessary condition, in order to have even a passably well-regulated country, that the interest in public affairs should be widespread and that it should be kept as intelligent and as unselfish as possible. Modern life imposes upon everybody the duty of good citizenship. Good citizenship in the full sense requires a constant concern about public matters. Such a concern must take some part of a man's time. If good citizens are not willing to give time to public affairs for the sake of wise and efficient government, it is certain enough that a more selfish class of citizens will seize the opportunity to control public affairs for private advantage. In England, popular progress has had to fight the aristocratic and ruling elements, in order to change a govern-

ment for the benefit of special classes to a government for the welfare of the people. In the United States, where we have no special classes, the result of negligence always is to put governmental affairs under the control of professional politicians who manage things for their own pecuniary gain. There is no country in the world where the rights and liberties of the individual citizen are safe unless he and his fellows are prepared to fight for them, not only on election day but on every other day in the year. In some respects, at this moment, American liberty is less secure than Turkish or Russian.

*Politics
and
Leadership*

There are times when almost everybody (except the greedy beneficiaries) becomes very tired of politics. Millions of citizens wish that governmental affairs might become so adjusted and settled that they could be forgotten for a while. Must we, they ask themselves, be forever discussing the tariff, the trusts, the problems of State and municipal administration, and all the other insistent questions of politics and human society? The only proper answer is in the affirmative. Popular responsibility for the general welfare has been assumed. And there is no way, now, by which responsibility can be shifted from the people to a set of ordained rulers, without disaster and loss that would be felt by every one. The only thing morally possible is to build up the intelligence and quality of citizenship; to give democracy its scope; to let the people see clearly that they must gain or lose in accordance with their own decisions. There are times when confusion seems to prevail in public affairs, and when there is no leadership of clear value or high authority among those set in public places. It happens that this is the case just now in the United States. But this is no calamity. Our citizens must think, not follow. There was never at any time in this country a better diffusion of intelligence. So there is no reason for discouragement. The country's problems will have to be threshed out by the joint effort of many minds. It is plain enough now that there can be no other way. The day of dominant personal leadership is at an end. Political salvation cannot come in that way. Roosevelt stirred the country brilliantly and wonderfully, in the sense of arousing it to its own duties of effort and courage and honesty in government,—all the way from the school district up to the work of Congress and the national Administration. But Roosevelt felt that as regards most mat-

ters he was thinking in unison with the best thought of vast numbers of his fellow-citizens. He well understood that the modern community must learn to know its own mind, that officials must serve rather than dominate, and that there may be more statesmanship in the head of some plain farmer who reads and ponders than in the head of any official.

*Parties,
and Real
Issues*

The men at Washington are doing about as well as they can, but they are all fumbling, more or less. The same thing is true in many of our State legislatures. Valuable determinations can only be reached by the processes of a wide-spread public discussion. Every Congressman must seek the help of the thinking people of his own district or State. Few, if any, of the great questions before the country at the present time are really party questions. The office-seekers naturally adhere to their own party machinery, because otherwise they would have no chance to get the nominations or appointments. And many thousands of excellent citizens continue to call themselves Republicans or Democrats because of traditional associations. But party feeling does not sway men's minds as in former years, and good government is an ideal that men are learning to value more highly than the success of their own party. The citizen should be outspoken, and he should encourage his Congressman to be frank and to deal with questions on their merits. Some Republican Congressmen have been afraid to say what they really thought about reforming the tariff; and some Democratic Congressmen have been afraid to say what they thought about the best way to deal with railroads, trusts, and large corporations. It is usually the fault of a Congressman's constituents when he has to play the demagogue. As a rule the Congressman would like to be allowed to think honestly and speak sincerely.

*The "Presiden-
tial Year" Has
Arrived*

For almost a year to come the people of the United States will hear much of politics and public questions. The so-called "Presidential year" has its drawbacks. It does, indeed, seem to interfere with "business." But our greatest business, after all, is the Government; and it needs constant attention. Let every citizen take a keen interest in these things, and try to arouse those among his neighbors who show either cynicism or indifference. It is a time for men to be good tempered but exceedingly frank. Power in this country rests with the people. The politicians do not own the

offices. People who are in office have been put there to attend strictly to their official duties, with an eye single to the public welfare. No man in public office has any mortgage on his job. There is not the slightest presumption, under our form of government, in favor of the reelection to a public office of a man who has been elected once. It is not only the right, but it is the duty, of citizens in a republic to be outspoken about public officials and public affairs. There is no law of the land, nor is there any rule of etiquette, against criticizing officials. Far from its being rude or improper to criticize judges, for example, there is no set of men holding office in this country who ought to be kept under more unsparing scrutiny and who ought to be more constantly criticized when they show wrong tendencies, either in motive or logic, than men on the bench.

Let the Common Voter be Active

Executive officers should be held accountable for any lack of close attention to duty, and their conduct should be as free as that of the judges from the taint of favoritism or private motive. There has never been a time when the ordinary citizen had a better chance than now to use his voice and his vote for the public welfare. This political year means scores of thousands of candidates for all kinds of elective places. The voter should demand of his party that it bring forward the best possible candidates, and he should ask the candidates to express themselves fully as to their intentions and their convictions. The voter should also demand a voice in the making of nominations. The individual member of a political party should not permit candidates to be selected by star-chamber methods, or by machinery that is not responsive to the real party sentiment.

The Presidency and Its Burdens

Besides taking a keen interest in the affairs of their own communities, intelligent citizens ought to watch closely the course of things at Washington. Regardless of anybody's theory about the rights and duties of the States, this country is a nation. It is as much a nation as England, France, and Italy are nations. And our national affairs center in the national government with its seat at Washington. The head of our national government is the President, and he holds a far greater power than any other official personage in the entire world. In the school of life, and in the general field of official service, we train hundreds and even thousands of

men to a point where they might be sent to Congress, might be called to fill a cabinet position, or might otherwise be placed conspicuously in the national service. From thousands of men so placed we choose, more or less by accident, someone to exercise the colossal authority of the President, for a term of four years. Before assuming the duties of the one supreme office, the individual so chosen has not, as a rule, been distinguishable above hundreds, or perhaps thousands, of his fellow citizens. He has not previously been regarded as a fountain of wisdom, much less as an infallible oracle. Yet he is suddenly required to exercise almost unlimited power, and is expected to assume the rôle of mature and superior wisdom in respect of a vast number of questions which no one man could possibly have considered in a thorough way. It is a most trying ordeal to which a mere human being is subjected, even when he holds the strict and constitutional view of his prerogatives—and it is also a severe ordeal for the country that has to take its chances with the man at the helm. The great wonder is that it lies in the ordinary American citizen to rise to such heights of good judgment as to serve through a term of the Presidency without bringing disaster upon the country. It is not fair to expect the impossible of any man placed in such a position.

The Executive Sphere

A President has such a vast range of things to attend to in the ordinary course of his executive work that he cannot properly do the country's thinking for it on public questions, nor can he save Congress the trouble of writing the country's laws. In the future the tendency will be, in our national government, to give longer terms to the experts and shorter terms to political heads who are not experts. The Agricultural Department has for a long time been administered by an expert at the head with many experts in association with him, and the good results are obvious. It has been reported that Secretary Wilson is now kept in the cabinet only till such time as the President can find a successor. But the country has had the benefit of Mr. Wilson's services for nearly fifteen years. Wonderful improvements could be made in the Post-Office Department if it were put under expert business management on a basis of comparative permanency. The inner organization of the English and French departments of national government is stable, businesslike, and non-political, though political figure-heads change often. Thus the recent shifting



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

PRESIDENT TAFT AT THE MINE-SAFETY DEMONSTRATION HELD AT PITTSBURGH ON OCTOBER 31

(At the right of President Taft is Miss Mabel T. Boardman, head of the American Red Cross Society.

Next on the right is Dr. J. A. Holmes, Director of the Bureau of Mines. At the left of the group is Congressman Barchfeld, of Pittsburgh)

of portfolios in the British cabinet has made no change in the essential working of the departments. It is very important under our system to keep in mind that the power that goes with high office is official but not personal. The reelection of Diaz in Mexico, term after term, had a tendency to make the power he exercised a personal thing, as if he were a sort of monarch, rather than a merely official thing.

*Power
and Its
Misuse*

As the country grows in population and in complexity of social and business life, the discretions exercised by high officials become ever more serious and delicate. The use of the patronage and power of an administration in the quest of a further term of office can in many ways disturb the poise that is necessary for the proper exercise of power, and of the discretions that go with high office. However it may appear just now, it will become perfectly clear within a dozen years that a President can serve the country more efficiently if he dismisses wholly from his thoughts the idea of desiring a second term. It will be required that he keep himself scrupulously free from all suspicion that he is in any way

directly or indirectly making use of public offices and governmental agencies for his own personal reasons. The time will come when it will be absolutely impossible for a President of the United States to be renominated if it can be shown that he has bargained, directly or indirectly, for the control of delegations to the nominating convention, or that he has in any way used the powers of his great public office for his own political ends. The renomination of a President by his own party should come so spontaneously from the rank and file of the people that no one could question it.

*The Office
and
the Man*

The Presidency is not an expert position, and its chief requisites are good judgment, lofty and patriotic character, a decisive mind, a broad general knowledge of the country, familiarity with our governmental system, and well-grounded views upon our domestic and foreign problems and relationships. Both parties have men in considerable number who could fill the office of the Presidency in a safe and intelligent way if called to the place. But neither party possesses any man who is competent, in the office of President, to do



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PRESIDENT TAFT AND SECRETARY MEYER ON THE "MAYFLOWER," REVIEWING THE FLEET OF WARSHIPS IN THE HUDSON RIVER ON NOVEMBER 2

anything more than the duties strictly imposed upon him by his position. No Moses need apply. We want a President who will do his own work, and do it well. He cannot do that and at the same time be "leader of the party" or mentor in general to the country. This country has no need of an official mentor. Daily duties of public administration are so vast and so important that their proper fulfilment must engross all the time and strength of any incumbent. They cannot be performed on wheels, or at a distance from the seat of government. Congress, as organized in the standing committees of the Senate and the House, is in a position to consider the large public policies which from time to time are to find expression in the country's laws. That is what Congress is for. It would be unfortunate if a President and his administrative assistants,—however energetic and well meaning,—should be permitted to usurp the functions of the law-making body. This is written in no spirit of reproach, but as pointing out a marked tendency. There can be no safe compromise between our system of a separate executive and the British system which unites governing functions.

*Congress
Must
Assert Itself*

It is not true that men who, for a time, are at the head of a bureau or a department of administration are the men best qualified to lay down the lines of public policy, even as respects the business of the department in which they are working. These officials may often make valuable recommendations as to administrative details; but they are seldom qualified to express final judgment upon the larger questions. The lawyers charged for the time being with the prosecution of offenses under federal statutes, as for example the Sherman Anti-Trust law, are much too close to the details of particular cases to give the best formulation of the country's future policy in the matter of regulating monopolistic combinations. They are in an admirable position for making technical suggestions, but the very nature of their duties precludes them from the exercise of broad judgment in the field of legislative policy. The same thing is true with regard to almost every other department of governmental activity. Postal policy cannot be made by transient postal employees. The tariff question and the trust question, as well as questions of

large public concern in every field, must be met by open discussion, and handled for the country by the law-making branch of the Government. No good end is served by the attempt to initiate all the country's legislation in the administrative departments. When executive officers, whose function is not that of legislation, have been so ill-advised as to prepare complete drafts of all bills affecting general policy, and when they insist upon having these bills introduced in Congress as avowedly coming from the executive branch of the Government, they are almost certain to be carried away by excessive zeal during the subsequent proceedings. They become so much interested in the fate of their pet measures that they yield to the temptation of using undue pressure to gain their ends; and then at times we have the spectacle of members of the Cabinet lobbying in the halls of Congress, or bringing personal and official influences to bear in all sorts of ways to affect the votes of individual legislators.

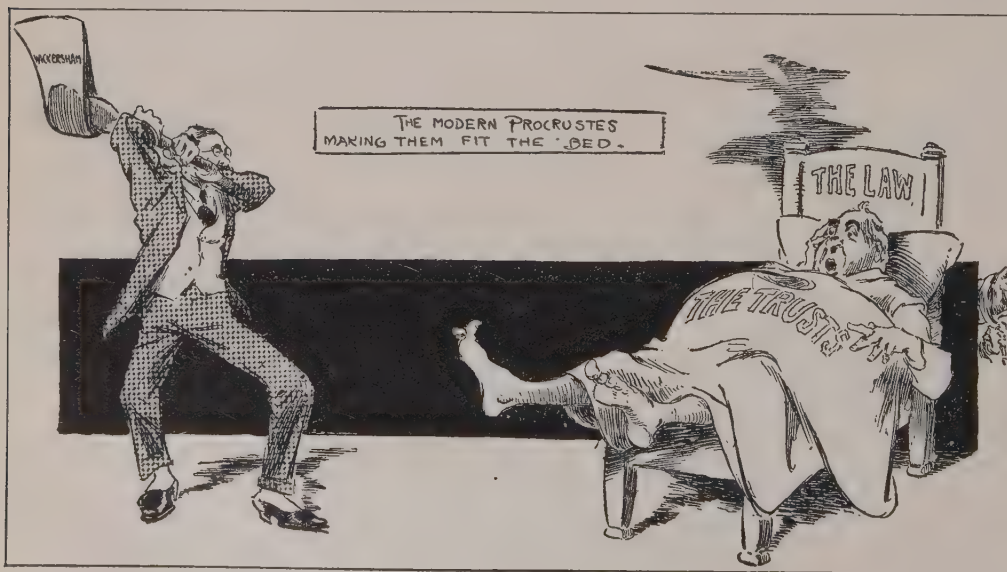
have always tried to carry their pet measures through Congress. These remarks are not intended to criticise Mr. Cleveland, Mr. McKinley, Mr. Roosevelt, or Mr. Taft. They are directed toward a tendency, and not in the least are they aimed at any man. Their object is to remind the plain, intelligent citizen that he cannot safely abdicate his own duty to any extent whatsoever as respects the policies and the laws of his country. The executive duties of the President and the heads of the departments are more absorbing than are the business tasks or professional duties of the intelligent private citizen. It would be preposterous, therefore, to assume that the lawyers and the business men of this country could reasonably be absolved from their own duty of thinking and forming opinions about the regulation of interstate commerce, merely because the President and the Attorney-General have been formulating views which will be recommended to Congress in the form of new statutes completely written out.

Pressure
Upon
Congress

Under our system of three separate and co-ordinate branches of government, the attempt on the part of the executive to carry legislation through Congress by the use of patronage and pressure of various kinds, is only less objectionable than would be the use of subtle influences to secure decisions of the courts in support of the contentions urged by the administration's law officers. It can be no sufficient answer to say that our executives

Officials in
the
Thinking Rôle

Mr. Taft and Mr. Wickersham are men of exceptional knowledge and mental power; but they have not nearly as good a chance, while holding their present high offices, to think out what would be the best policy for the country as they would have if they were freed from official preoccupations and duties and were in the ranks of private citizens. No man in the executive branch of the Government can possibly give as much time to thinking



THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL AND THE TRUSTS—From the Times, New York

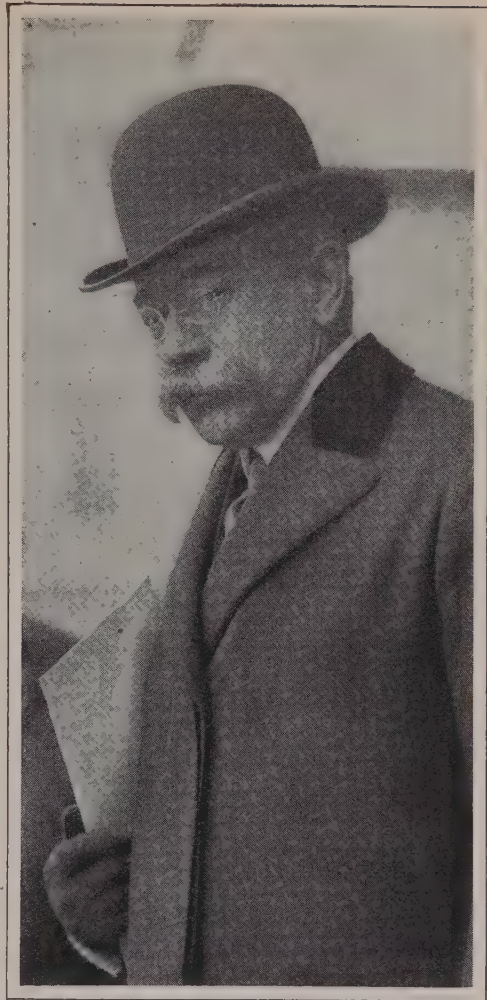
of the Sherman Anti-Trust law and its relation to American business as can be given by thousands of able and qualified minds in every part of the country. These business problems are of the utmost importance, and they cannot be solved unless good citizens, competent to think about them, in every part of the country, shall help to guide the thoughts and convictions of law-makers toward just and workable solutions.

*The Senate
Hearings
on Trusts*

There are eminent lawyers and strong independent thinkers in the Interstate Commerce Committee of the Senate. This committee began on November 15 a series of hearings upon the Sherman Anti-Trust law in view of recent court decisions. The committee has a constructive purpose, and will welcome the opinions of men who have a right to be heard, no matter how diverse their views. It seems likely that great progress may be made, in these months to come, toward the bringing about of a better understanding of the subject itself and the kind of remedy to be applied. Many people now believe that large corporations, operating throughout the country, ought to have their corporate methods regulated by the national government. It would seem that some of the worst evils of large corporations could be corrected at the very outset by a good law, forbidding one company to hold stock in another, requiring honesty in capitalization, and so devised as to shut out every improper corporation from the field of interstate commerce. The present situation cannot be permanent.

*Trends
of
Opinion*

Several years ago we seemed to be making hopeful progress toward some such wise national regulation of trusts. But of late a furor for prosecutions under the Sherman Anti-Trust law has seemed to control the official mind. It was known, however, by the middle of November, that President Taft would recommend federal incorporation to Congress, and discuss amendments to the Anti-Trust law. During his great speech-making tour, the President had dwelt strongly upon the recent court decisions, as having made the Sherman Anti-Trust law a satisfactory instrument for regulating big business. But public opinion seems now strongly inclined in the opposite direction. The Hon. Martin W. Littleton, now a leader in the Democratic Congress, in a powerful address at Pittsburgh on October 31, took the ground that the Sherman law had become too uncertain to be a guide to



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ATTORNEY-GENERAL WICKERSHAM

(Who is directing a series of prosecutions under the Sherman Anti-Trust law)

the business community, and he advocated its entire repeal, there being substituted for it a law that should define particular offenses so that business men might know where they stood. Mr. Littleton also advocated a plan which would admit corporations to interstate trade only after they had complied with preliminaries and had thus become either actually or virtually chartered by national authority. Mr. Roosevelt has come before the public again in a strong statement in which he points out the difference between breaking up large businesses and regulating them in the interest of the public. As a matter of fact, the public interest is not clearly served by the present method of enforcing the law.



Photograph by the Campbell Studio

HON. MARTIN W. LITTLETON, OF NEW YORK

(Whose speech on the trust question at Pittsburgh on October 31 attracted wide attention, and who is a leading member of the House Committee now investigating the Steel Trust)

*"Trust-
busting"
in Practice*

We shall, of course, know better after the lapse of time what has been the practical result of the suits gained by the Government against certain large corporations. Thus the stockholders of the Standard Oil Company are required to accept proportionate shares in the stock of a large number of the constituent concerns, the stock of which has heretofore been held by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. For the time being, the reorganization seems to be more apparent than real. The control of Standard Oil interests has not changed. One thing that has been gained has been the acquiescence of almost every man connected with large industrial undertakings in the view that some kind of governmental oversight and regulation is necessary. It is perceived that the prosecuting officers and the courts will henceforth do their best to enforce whatever laws they may find upon the statute books. It seems reasonable to remark that unless we deal as

intelligently with the forces of modern business as governments are dealing in other countries, we shall seriously injure ourselves while serving no good end whatsoever. These are not party problems, and there can be no Republican way or Democratic way of regulating the industrial activities of this country. Neither can such questions be dealt with from a sectional standpoint. The West and South have no more reason to be opposed to trusts than have the East and North. We shall not have a wise regulation of large corporations unless we have one that is just to all citizens and good for all parts of the country. If the Democratic party can show itself especially energetic and intelligent in getting at the facts about the trusts, and in formulating sound policies for their regulation, the country will recognize and approve such evidence of statesmanship. But it will not be worth while to try to invent a Democratic remedy as opposed to some so-called Republican remedy. It is reasonable to believe that the leading Presidential nominees next year will have somewhat similar ideas as to the regulation of trusts and large corporations.

*Tariff
as a
Live Issue*

Interest in the trust question will not, of course, divert public attention from the tariff issue. The Democrats had originally intended to revise the tariff in the session of Congress that begins on December 4. The extra session of the new Congress, called by President Taft last spring, compelled the Democratic House to bring forward its tariff program more rapidly than had been expected. The country was very favorably impressed by the skill with which several tariff-reform bills were carried through the House by overwhelming majorities and through the Senate with decisive margins. The President vetoed these bills on the ground that the Tariff Board would have certain reports to make by December. It seems probable that the Democratic House will again pass tariff bills not greatly differing from those presented by the Underwood committee a few months ago. Whether or not the Progressive Republican Senators will again act with their Democratic colleagues to carry tariff bills through the Senate cannot now be stated. It is understood that the President is prepared to accept a certain amount of tariff revision in the case of schedules which have been studied by the Tariff Commission. But the main facts were well enough known already, and tariff revision is a question of public policy rather than one of precise statistics as to domestic and foreign costs of production.

Tariff
in
Party Politics

Nevertheless, it is quite likely that the session will adjourn, next May or June, with tariff revision still pending, so that the subject will have prominence in the Presidential campaign that is to open with the beginning of July. In the last Presidential campaign the Republican party promised the country a substantial revision of the tariff in case of victory. This promise was carried out by the substitution of the Payne-Aldrich law for the Dingley law. President Taft indorsed the Payne law as a reasonable fulfilment of the party's promise. The Republican rank and file, and the country at large, did not take this view of the matter; and in consequence the country went overwhelmingly Democratic last year, and the Democrats properly regarded themselves as having a mandate to try their hand at tariff revision. If the voters should continue to hold this view they would elect a Democratic President and another Democratic Congress next November, and tariff revision could be completed in a special session that

Elections
Last
Month

The elections last month showed that the disposition of the voters to smash party machinery had not been changed in the course of a year; and Republican machines were especially damaged. It is true that in the State of New York the Republicans have regained the legislature, having lost it by an overwhelming majority last year. But this is chiefly



GOVERNOR-ELECT EARL BREWER, OF MISSISSIPPI

would be convened in March, 1913. Nobody knows, however, what will happen in the elections next fall. The Republican party has a habit of being very strong in Presidential years, while the chief mission of the Democratic party heretofore has been to chasten the Republicans in off-year elections. Yet the prospect at this time seems much better for the Democrats than for the Republicans.



GOVERNOR-ELECT JAMES B. MCCREARY, OF KENTUCKY

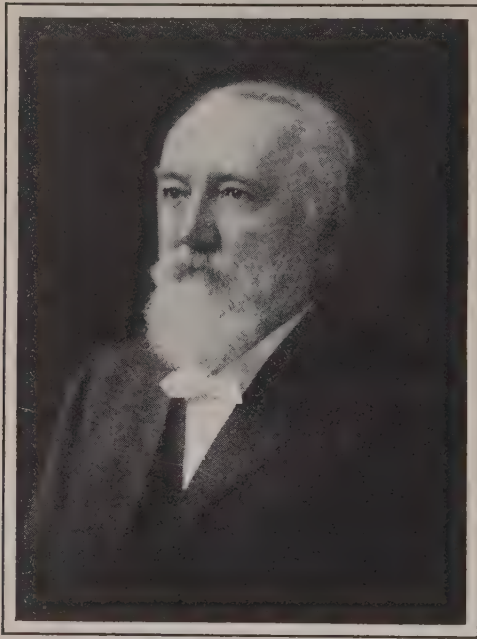
due to the fusion movement in New York City against Murphy's Tammany machine, and to the independent vote throughout the State which felt it necessary to condemn the bad record recently made by the Democrats at Albany. In the national election next year the State of New York seems likely to give the Democrats a plurality, although much will depend upon the candidates. The reelection of Governor Foss in Massachusetts came at the end of a campaign in which national issues were presented, and the Republicans could not regain the ground lost last year. New England as a whole, once so strongly Republican, is at the present moment Democratic, or at least strongly progressive. The Republican governor of Rhode Island was reelected, however, and it would be quite presumptuous to say that with good candidates and a good platform the Republicans would not have a fighting chance everywhere in the East next fall. Kentucky, Mississippi, and New Mexico elected Democratic governors. In Maryland, Hon. Phillips Lee

Goldsborough, the Republican candidate, was elected governor; but the contest was entirely upon State and local issues, just as it was in New York, where Republican victories this year bear little or no relation to national party lines. It was in various local and municipal contests, as in Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and elsewhere, that independent citizens and honest men of all parties got together to smash corrupt Republican machines. And the results were encouraging.

*Philadelphia's
Healthful
Discontent*

The old editorial habit, indigenous to American newspapers, of considering every local and State election with reference to its supposed bearings on national politics, has outlived the conditions that gave it birth. Whatever may have been true in the past, municipal elec-

the candidates obligated to a boss? When the voters ask this and demand a reply the last connecting link between municipal and national party organization is severed. The voters of Philadelphia and Cincinnati asked this question last month in tones that were heard. To tell in the vernacular of politics what happened on November 7 is to say that the Republican machines of Philadelphia and Cincinnati were destroyed, and the work was done by Republicans. Philadelphia had been called corrupt because she had been ruled for decade after decade by a ring of contractors who plundered the city. It suited the purpose of this ring to wear the livery of the Republican organization, which had intimate relations, of course, with the State and national organizations of the party. At last the corruption became intolerable to great numbers of Republicans, as well as Democrats. Philadelphia could no longer be described as "contented." The election of the veteran reformer, Rudolph Blankenburg, as mayor, independent of all bosses, pledged to clean government, meant the overthrow of the strongest party organization dominating any American city. Appeals to partisanship no longer availed; for the time being, national and local Republicanism in Philadelphia were divorced. It would be illogical to argue from this that Philadelphia will be Democratic in 1912.



Photograph by Gutekunst

HON. RUDOLPH BLANKENBURG

(The reform candidate who won against the Republican machine in Philadelphia)

*Cincinnati and
National
Politics*

Cincinnati afforded a painful example of the bane of ward politics entangled with national party leadership. The Cox machine in that city, denounced by William H. Taft in 1905 as a corrupt organization, whose destruction was "devoutly to be wished," had so offended the friends of decent government in the city that independent Republicans combined with Democrats and elected the young district attorney, Henry T. Hunt, to the mayorship; yet such were the exigencies of national politics that the President of the United States was impelled to appear in his home city as the champion of the discredited cause of the local boss, whom he had bravely defied six years before. Under our system of party politics any President who seeks renomination during his term of office may be placed in quite as humiliating a position; but it is at least a cause of congratulation that the people of Cincinnati have broken the connection between an odious local machine and a great national party. That particular machine may not be of much use to any Presidential candidate for some time to come.

tions in this country are no longer determined by divisions of the voters on party lines, nor are such elections in any sense fair indications of the drift of public sentiment on national issues. Voters in cities nowadays are concerned with the administrative abilities of the men whom they are asked to elect to office, rather than with their partisan predilections. The first question is, Can the candidates give us a clean and efficient government? Sooner or later this resolves itself into the query, Are



Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

PRESIDENT TAFT VOTING AT CINCINNATI ON ELECTION DAY

*Other
Ohio
Cities*

The municipal elections last month showed only that the people were determined no longer to put up with bad local government for the sake of some supposed advantage to their party. Republicans were not afraid to vote for Democrats, and neither Democrats nor Republicans were afraid to vote for Socialists on local issues. Cleveland elected Newton D. Baker mayor by an old-time Tom Johnson majority, because Cleveland liked Tom Johnson's policies and believed that Baker, who had been Johnson's confidant, was the man to put those policies into effect. Toledo re-elected Brand Whitlock for similar reasons. The defeat of Mayor Marshall, of Columbus, who was a candidate for re-election, has been ascribed to his attitude in the street-railway strike two years ago. Ten of the Ohio cities and towns elected Socialist mayors and many socialists were elected members of city councils throughout the State. This fact by itself is not to be taken as an evidence of the spread of Socialism in Ohio. It signifies rather that in municipal politics the Socialist candidates had constructive programs to offer and were

at least free from corrupt alliances. The independent leaven at work in the State brought about the election of a Progressive majority of the delegates to the constitutional convention of 1912, the members of this majority being pledged to the adoption of the initiative, referendum, recall, and other radical measures.

*Schenectady
and
Los Angeles*

Ohio was not the only State in which Socialists won local elections. In New York the Rev. George B. Lunn was elected mayor of Schenectady, a manufacturing city of 80,000 people, and with him, besides the city ticket and a majority of the council, a Socialist member of the State Legislature. Dr. Lunn had made a vigorous campaign, advocating a municipal street-paving plant and a reduction in the price of gas. He was supported by a large element in Schenectady's exceptionally intelligent population. Heavy Socialist gains were made in other manufacturing towns of New York State. Massachusetts and Rhode Island each elected a Socialist assemblyman. Socialist mayors were chosen in Minnesota,



Copyright by Frank Moore, Cleveland

Newton D. Baker, Cleveland

George J. Karb, Columbus

Brand Whitlock, Toledo

THREE SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES IN THE OHIO MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS

Mississippi, Pennsylvania, and Utah, and municipal officers in several Western and Southern States. In Los Angeles, Cal., last month, the Socialist candidate for mayor, Job Harriman, polled a plurality of votes at the primaries, but not a majority over all other candidates. An election will, therefore, be required in December to decide the contest. Registration for this election was surprisingly large,—male voters, 100,000; female voters, 73,000. Duplications may reduce the total, however, to approximately 168,000. Voting schools for women have been established by the Socialists in the working districts. The size of the Socialist vote as revealed at the primaries, the ability and popularity of their leader, the importance of the issues involved in the administration of so large a city as Los Angeles, and the participation of women for the first time in an important California election, combine to make this contest an exciting one.

Woodrow
Wilson and
New Jersey

The Republican victory in the legislative elections in New Jersey cannot fairly be regarded as adverse to Governor Woodrow Wilson. It must be remembered that Governor Wilson's worst enemies in New Jersey are not the Republican voters, thousands of whom helped to elect him, but the old Democratic machine which he has had the courage to fight successfully in the open. This machine controlled the Democratic nominations of a very consider-

able number of legislative candidates last month, and the defeat of such candidates on the part of discriminating voters ought to be regarded as a tribute to the qualities of a high-minded Governor. Even last year the Republicans were slightly in the majority in the State Senate, yet Governor Wilson's excellent program of reform measures was accepted and passed. It was quite generally believed last month that the Ohio elections were likely to strengthen Governor Harmon's position as a Presidential candidate. But the elections as a whole did not settle anything as between Wilson and Harmon. Both men are definitely before the country as candidates; and the Democratic party is evidently proud of the array of capable men whose names are likely to be presented to the nominating convention.

Republican
Aspirants

No Republican candidates are before the country in the avowed and active sense, excepting Taft and La Follette. Well-informed politicians have said that never before in the history of the country has any administration made such elaborate, long-planned effort to secure a second term as the one now in office. The trouble with such efforts is that State machines, even when they can deliver the delegates in June as agreed, cannot in these modern days deliver the votes in November. Doubtless the Cox machine—damaged as it is—can be of service next summer. It may

even dominate the choice of a part of Ohio's delegation to the Republican convention. Yet arrangements with machines of that kind, however valuable they might have been twenty years ago, disgust the more fastidious voter of to-day. Thus, instead of being an asset on election day, these alliances are likely to become a heavy liability. And more or less the same thing might be said about arrangements with political managers in many other States for delivering their instructed delegations. The situation in the Republican party just now is a very curious one. A few weeks ago we were told, —with the precision of careful plans that had neglected no State or Congressional district in the entire Union,—that Mr. Taft's nomination was absolutely assured; and that, except for a pitiful group of La Follette votes on the first ballot, it would be unanimous. And, indeed, this is exactly the way it looked. The Republican politicians had it all arranged; and perhaps they may even yet carry their plans through. Hundreds of these politicians have been saying, in private, that the party is in for defeat anyhow; and that since Taft is determined to have the nomination it is better to let him be beaten and let the party reorganize for a fresh start in 1916. But



HON. HENRY T. HUNT
(Mayor-elect of Cincinnati)

while the Republican politicians are cynical, the Republican voters are progressive and hopeful.



DR. GEORGE R. LUNN
(Socialist Mayor-elect of Schenectady)

*Party
Machinery
Needs Reform* In a large number of States these voters have taken it into their heads that they would like to have State-wide Presidential primaries in order to express their preference for candidates. When the National Republican Committee meets in Washington this month, it will be urged by the La Follette men to authorize such Presidential primaries. There is no likelihood at all that the Committee will permit such an expression of sentiment on the part of the Republican voters. But the voters themselves, in all of the States, even where denied the Presidential primary, can find many informal ways of expressing their preferences. The time has come when the machinery of the Republican party must be reorganized, or the party will be destroyed by its own corruption. For a great many years the best thought of the party has been demanding that the national conventions should be made representative of the actual Republican vote cast in the previous Presidential elections. There is a great block of

Southern States where the Republican party is of no consequence in the actual election; yet these States send to the national convention a body of delegates equal to about one-third of the whole number, and large enough always to hold the balance of power and to determine the choice of candidates. The delegates from these States are not prominent members of the Republican party; they render the party no service; and their influence in a convention is confined to their voting power. The scramble to control these Southern delegations has resulted in many serious controversies and scandals. They are best managed, upon the whole, through federal patronage; and the Post-Office Department has the credit of being most useful in "rounding up" these mercenaries.

*Past
Efforts
Defeated*

Everyone knows that the plan of representation in the Republican national conventions ought to be changed. The trouble is that the opportune moment is hard to find. The change was about to be made at the Philadelphia convention of 1900. Mr. McKinley's renomination was entirely unopposed, and all the leaders were in agreement that the time had come to put representation upon a proper basis. The Hon. Henry C. Payne, of Wisconsin, was prepared to present the resolution. But at that point there came a gentle hint from President McKinley himself that he would be glad, for reasons of tact, if the matter could go over. It will be remembered that in the long and careful work preliminary to the convention of 1896, Mr. Mark Hanna had stolen a march on the managers of the Reed canvass and had captured for Mr. McKinley a great part of these Southern delegates. Naturally Mr. McKinley felt that the reform had better come a little later; and so it was passed over in 1900. But it was generally understood that the national committee would of its own accord change the basis of representation in time for the convention of 1904. The death of Mr. McKinley created new exigencies, and the situation in 1908, as most Republican politicians will remember, bore some resemblance to that which now confronts the party.

*What
Happened
in 1908*

The attempt in the last Republican convention to bring about this reform was defeated by a vote of 471 to 506. Yet the 471 represented about two-thirds of the Republican voters of the country, and probably four-fifths of the States which are reliably Republican. Republican politicians and voters would do well

to refresh their memories as to the way in which this matter was dealt with in the Chicago convention of 1908. It will be remembered that the New York delegation in this last convention presented the name of Governor Charles E. Hughes, the Pennsylvania delegation presented Mr. Knox's name, Indiana offered Mr. Fairbanks to the convention, Illinois named Speaker Cannon, and the Wisconsin delegation nominated Mr. La Follette. The delegates from these States and various others were in favor of changing the basis of representation. Excepting Mr. Cannon, the men named are still regarded as presidential possibilities. Senator La Follette has a much stronger following among the people of the country than the politicians or the newspapers appear to understand. Among the more conservative Republican politicians, one frequently hears the names of Fairbanks, Vice-President Sherman, and Secretary Knox mentioned as possibilities. It is obvious that neither Hughes nor Roosevelt could be a candidate in the sense of personally seeking the nomination. Either of them could, of course, accept the nomination with entire dignity and propriety if it should be offered by the convention.

*The Govern-
ment moves to
Dissolve the
"Steel Trust"*

The United States Steel Corporation is in size and in many other respects the most conspicuous of all the "trusts" that have been summoned to court to fight for their existence. On October 26, the Government filed in the Circuit Court at Trenton, N. J., its not unexpected dissolution suit against the Steel Corporation. Apprehensions regarding the trust's position had been felt by its officers, directors and stockholders ever since the Supreme Court's decisions last spring in the Standard Oil and American Tobacco cases. Briefly, the Government's charges, drawn by ex-Secretary of War Jacob M. Dickinson, who, as special counsel under Attorney-General Wickersham, will have immediate charge of the prosecution—are the same as those in the Oil and Tobacco suits; namely, that the Steel Corporation is an illegal combination in restraint of trade and commerce within the meaning of the Sherman Law, and that therefore the various individual companies of which it is composed ought to have restored to them their corporate independence to the end that competition in the steel business may again be established as it existed prior to the formation of the Corporation in 1901. Complete dissolution would mean giving independence to more than one



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Elbert H. Gary

Photograph by Pach Bros., N. Y.
Francis Lynde Stetson

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Jacob M. Dickinson

THREE MEN PROMINENT IN THE GOVERNMENT'S SUIT AGAINST THE STEEL CORPORATION

hundred companies. Besides the different corporations that are named either directly, as defendants, or as parties to the suit, there are eighteen individual defendants, among them many of the country's best-known "captains of industry." They are J. P. Morgan, J. D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegie, Chas. M. Schwab, Geo. W. Perkins, Elbert H. Gary, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Henry C. Frick, Chas. Steele, James Gayley, Wm. H. Moore, J. H. Moore, E. C. Converse, Percival Roberts, Jr., Daniel G. Reid, Norman B. Ream, P. A. B. Widener, and William P. Palmer. These and the various corporations in which they are interested will be represented chiefly by Francis Lynde Stetson, a law partner at one time of the late Grover Cleveland, and Mr. Morgan's personal counsel. Mr. Stetson was chief adviser in the formation not only of the Steel Corporation but of other big industrial mergers like the shipping, rubber and harvester trusts.

The Tennessee Coal and Iron "Deal"

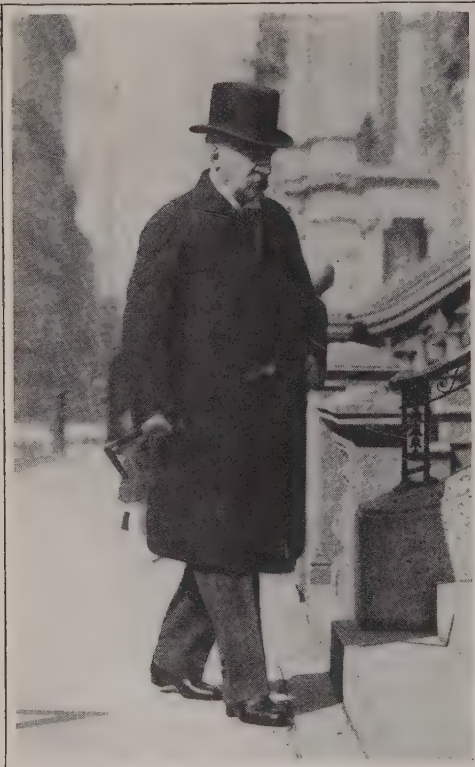
By no means the least important and interesting part of the Government's petition and bill of complaint in the Steel suit is the extended reference that is made in it to the Corporation's acquisition of the properties of the Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company at the height of the 1907 panic. That transaction, indeed, appears to constitute no inconsiderable part of the groundwork of the

Government's case. It is held up by the Government's lawyers as a conspicuous example of how the Steel Corporation sought to further its monopoly by acquiring control of competitors whenever they presented a "formidable aspect." With the details of the Tennessee Coal and Iron "deal," and the way in which Theodore Roosevelt, then President, was connected with it, those who have followed in these pages the comment regarding the work of the Stanley Committee in investigating the organization of the Steel Corporation will be familiar. It is necessary to recount here only that Mr. Gary, the Corporation's Executive Committee Chairman, and H. C. Frick, one of the prominent directors, with a view to satisfying themselves that the Government would take no steps to prevent the consummation of the merger, went to Washington to acquaint President Roosevelt with the Corporation's intention to absorb the Tennessee Company, and that after their conference with him he declared his belief that no Federal interference ought to be made.

Theodore Roosevelt's Part

In referring to this incident, the Government's brief in the suit charges that President Roosevelt was deceived as to the facts which led up to the transaction and the motives which actuated the Steel Corporation in undertaking it. If he had been fully informed, the petition

says, he would have known "that a desire to stop the panic was not the sole moving cause, but that there was also the desire and purpose to acquire the control of a company that had recently assumed a position of potential competition of great significance. By this purchase," continues the brief, "the corporation acquired 447,423 acres of mineral lands in Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama, containing approximately 400,000,000 tons of merchantable ore and 1,200,000,000 tons of coal, of which over one-third is coking coal, and thus it greatly strengthened its control of the iron ore supply of the country and its predominating position in the iron and steel trades of the South, eliminated a competitor and unlawfully acquired a power which is a menace to the welfare of the country and should be destroyed." It should be remembered, however, that the Steel Corporation has already gone a long way toward disproving many of the sensational charges that have been made regarding the Tennessee transaction and toward dispossessing the public mind of the exaggerated ideas that were first prevalent as to the effect of the Coal and Iron purchase upon its position in the trade.



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J. PIERPONT MORGAN
(From a snapshot taken in November)

*A Statement
from
Mr. Roosevelt*

On November 16 appeared a statement from Mr. Roosevelt, in the form of an editorial in the *Outlook*, that keenly interested the whole country. Mr. Roosevelt not only reiterated in the strongest terms his denial that Mr. Gary had deceived him in the matter of the Tennessee Coal and Iron transaction, but uttered a ringing criticism of the present governmental activities in the field of Big Business. The present Steel Trust suit, he says, "has brought vividly before our people the need of reducing to order our chaotic government policy as regards business. . . . To attempt to meet the whole problem by a succession of lawsuits is hopeless. . . . It is practically impossible to break up all combinations merely because they are large and successful and to put the business of the country back into the middle of the eighteenth century." Mr. Roosevelt maintains that the Oil and Tobacco suits leave the companies still substantially under the control of the original defendants. "Such a result is lamentable from a standpoint of justice. The decision of the Supreme Court, if allowed to stand, means that none of the real offenders have received any punishment." Mr. Roosevelt does not at all agree with the administration in its contention that, since the Supreme Court decision, every honest man knows where he stands in relation to the Sherman Law. He believes we should formulate immediately a policy of dealing with big corporations which shall aim at their regulation and supervision, such regulation to be pushed in extreme cases even "to the point of exercising control over monopoly prices."

*"The
Hill Ore
Lands Deal"*

As a second serious "offense" in aid of monopoly committed by the Steel Corporation, the Government's petition refers at length to the Corporation's lease in 1907, through a subsidiary known as the Great Western Mining Company, of the ore lands owned by the Great Northern Railway on or near the famous Mesaba iron range of Minnesota. This transaction has always been shrouded in mystery, and the lease for some reason or other was never placed on record. But there are sufficient details generally known to indicate that the transaction was of no mean significance in connection with whatever desire the Steel Corporation may have had to control the domestic supply of the raw material used in the industry. There is little doubt that the control of this source of supply, comprising approximately 39,280 acres



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THEODORE ROOSEVELT AS HE LOOKS TO-DAY

of land and containing ore are variously estimated at from 250,000,000 tons (the figures of the Corporation's own experts) to between 500,000,000 and 1,000,000,000 tons (the figures of James J. Hill and his friends), taken in conjunction with other large holdings, left in the hands of the independent producers a relatively small proportion of the country's total supply. Here would have been the Government's surest ground on which to stand in support of its charge against the Steel Corporation of maintaining an illegal monopoly. But in advance of the filing of the dissolution suit, the Corporation, apparently in answer to the report made a few weeks before by Commissioner of Corporations, Herbert Knox Smith, announced that it had decided to cancel the lease of the Great Northern properties on January 1, 1915, and to reduce the freight rates on iron ore on all the railroads it owns in the Great Lakes region. Mr. Smith's report had declared that

"in so far as the Steel Corporation's position in the entire iron and steel industry is of monopolistic character, it is chiefly through its ore holdings and through its transportation of ore."

*A Point of
Weakness in the
Government's
Case*

Partisans of the Steel Corporation, and, in fact, of all big organized industry, who hold that the Government's case is weak, point significantly to another part of Commissioner Smith's report where he refers to the volume of the trust's production of finished products in relation to the output of the independents. It is shown there, for example, that in the production of steel ingots and castings, the Corporation's proportion of the country's total output fell from 65.7 per cent. in 1901 to 54.3 per cent. in 1910. In structural shapes it had fallen from 62.2 per cent. to 47 per cent. in the same period; in plates and sheets from 64.6 per cent. to 49.7 per cent.; in coated tin mill products from 73.1 to 61.1 per cent.; in wire rods from 77.7 to 67.3 per cent.; and in seamless tubes from 82.8 to 55.3 per cent. In short, while the Steel Corporation, since its organization, has enormously increased its own capacity and the value of its plants, having added to assets during the ten years of its existence no less than \$335,000,000 directly out of earnings, that increase has been accomplished under conditions which, so far from contributing to a weakening of the position of the independents, actually permitted a strengthening of it. Indeed the Steel Corporation's rivals have never admitted that the trust had very much advantage over them except through its ownership of the transportation lines from the ore fields of the Lake Superior district.

*Has the Steel
Corporation
Controlled
Prices?*

That the Steel Corporation has exercised an important influence in preventing price concessions in the trade, is generally believed. Many are of the opinion, indeed, that this is the most vulnerable point in the Corporation's position. As is well known, this influence was applied at the now famous "Gary dinners" in New York—ostensibly mere informal functions at which the men controlling the various steel interests of the country came together for the interchange of ideas and information relating to their business,—but, as the Government alleges, in reality devices "more euphonious and refined, but none the less effective, than pools," which, of course, are specifically forbidden by law. In the Government's petition it is asserted that, at

these dinners, when an understanding was reached regarding the maintenance of prices, individual declarations were made of intentions to follow the movement and that it was recognized that all interests followed the policy laid out for them by the head of the Steel Corporation. The possible benefits to the steel trade and to business generally, resulting from stability of steel prices is, of course, another question, and a great many able minds have come to the conclusion that the even level of prices which has existed since the formation of the Corporation is a better thing for the country than the violent fluctuations which the industry had previously shown.

*The Steel
Suit and the
Steel Market*

The filing of the dissolution suit against the Steel Corporation took Wall Street a little by surprise. Action by the Government had long been considered inevitable, but there was a general expectation that it would be postponed until after all of the details of the Tobacco trust's dissolution plan had been passed upon by the courts. The immediate effect of the announcement was a sharp decline in Steel shares and less declines in other stocks. But later on, the traders, recalling the statement made during the September unsettlement by Messrs. Morgan and Gary with reference to the Steel Corporation's scrupulous observance of the law and the rights of its competitors, and having received the further assurance of Mr. Gary and other Steel officials that a full disclosure of the facts would show that the suit ought to be decided on its merits in favor of the Corporation, became more optimistic, and prices rallied considerably. The preferred and common shares of the Steel Corporation are held by some 120,000 persons, among whom are large numbers of foreigners. These investors are counseled to have patience and not to sacrifice their holdings. They are reminded that it is one thing to file a dissolution suit and another thing to win it. And to the holders of the Corporation's bonds, it is pointed out that the Supreme Court has already declared in plain language that the law does not contemplate any destruction of property.

*Beef Packers
Attack the
Sherman Law*

The ten Chicago meat packers who were indicted some time ago for alleged criminal acts in connection with the "Beef Trust" cases have attacked the constitutionality of the Sherman Anti-trust Law from a new angle. Their latest move, made on November 15th, was

to surrender themselves to Government authorities and immediately thereafter to apply for a writ of habeas corpus on the ground that before undergoing trial in a lower court they ought to be privileged to test the law under which they were indicted in the United States Supreme Court. Their contention, as set forth in the petition for the writ, is that the Sherman Law violates certain amendments to the United States Constitution—that it is ambiguous and fails to create either an offence against the Government or to define what is set up as an offence in such a way as to make it possible for a citizen to tell whether he is a law-breaker or not before a jury trial. The legal advisers of the packers do not admit that the Supreme Court's "light of reason" interpretation of the Sherman Law in the American Tobacco and Standard Oil cases has remedied matters. Their petition declares, for example, that "the alleged criminality of the transactions complained of in the indictments will depend entirely upon a particular jury's view of the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the particular case; it will depend not on any standard erected by the law which may be known in advance, but on one which may be created by the whim, prejudice or arbitrary views of a jury."

*The Tobacco
Trust Plan
Approved*

On November 8, the United States Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York approved the American Tobacco Trust's reorganization plan substantially as it was outlined in these pages last month. Taking the broad position that it had no power to order the substitution of a different plan from that submitted by the Company and that even the slight changes approved could be made only with the consent of the defendants, the Court rejected not only the contentions of the independent companies, but also the principal ones made by Attorney-General Wickersham on behalf of the Government. At the public hearing on the plan the independents had argued chiefly for a division of the Trust's business among 73 different companies instead of 14 as proposed, and for a complete change of ownership of the business of the United Cigar Stores Company. The Attorney-General's most important proposal was that the final decree ought to provide that the Government might demand another division of the Company's business at any time within five years in case it were found later on that the proposed disintegration had not restored un-

trammled competition. With reference to the proposal to divide the business into smaller units, the Court merely suggested that it was so radical that it would be sheer waste of time to consider it. It held that to take the business of the United Cigar Stores Company entirely from the present owners would be confiscation, and that the Court had no apparent authority for prescribing that the disintegrated business should be kept under surveillance for five years. In short, the only alternative to an acceptance of the proposed plan without material modification was held to be the seizure of all of the property of the Trust for sale at public auction, the application of the proceeds of the sale to the payment of the debts and the division of any surplus remaining among the stockholders. Resort to that alternative was not desired by the Government. The action of the Court has been received with general approval from business men, except, the independent tobacco interests, who announce a probable appeal to the Supreme Court.

*Attempts
to Keep Up
Cotton Prices*

Last month interest in cotton had shifted from the question of the size of the crop to what is generally regarded—particularly throughout the South—as the more important question of prices. With the best of the trade estimates, previously referred to in these pages, of a total yield of between 14,000,000 and 15,000,000 bales finally confirmed by the returns of the Department of Agriculture, it became evident that this year the largest previous crop would be exceeded by at least 250,000 bales. Prices broke sharply during October to the lowest point reached in nearly three years. In September the leading growers, assembled in convention at Montgomery, Alabama, had endeavored to fix a minimum selling price of 13 or 14 cents a pound. Cotton at that time was selling at 12 cents, but during the next few weeks so much of the new crop came into the market that the price went below 9 cents. Many hold that at this point the return does not pay the cost of production to the planters. The Governors and Commissioners of Agriculture of the principal cotton-growing States decided to make further effort to steady the market. At a conference held at New Orleans they passed resolutions urging the Southern farmers not only to withhold the remaining portion of the crop from the market until better prices could be secured, but also to make sure of a smaller crop next season by entering into an agreement to reduce the acreage at least 25 per cent.



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THE NIGHT ILLUMINATION OF THE WARSHIPS IN THE HUDSON RIVER LAST MONTH

*Our Navy
on
Exhibition*

The naval reviews simultaneously held on both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts last month afforded a large number of people an excellent opportunity to view Uncle Sam's fighting craft. Off the California shore the Pacific fleet of twenty-four warships, with the veteran *Oregon* as the center of interest, provided the people of that section a splendid naval display. In the East the Atlantic fleet, consisting of one hundred and two ships, with 1100 officers and 25,000 men, was lined up the Hudson River for a distance of six and a half miles. There were superdreadnoughts, and dreadnoughts—including the *Delaware*, *North Dakota*, *Florida*, and *Utah*, the most powerful battleships afloat—as well as such veterans of the Spanish War as the *Iowa*, *Indiana*, and the *Massachusetts*, together with a host of other battleships, besides cruisers, submarines, torpedo boats, destroyers and colliers. Every vessel was in her somber war paint, shipshape and trim. It was the most magnificent assembly of warships ever mobilized under the American flag, and second in point of size only to that tremendous array of fighting craft marshalled in the Solent at the coronation of King George V. For almost a week this great fleet lay in the Hudson inviting popular inspection, and many citizens availed themselves of the opportunity to board the battleships and see them at close range. Hundreds of thousands of people crowded to view the great display and illumination.

The Lesson

It was a marvelous spectacle that Secretary Meyer had provided. But it was more than that. It was an impressive object-lesson. It showed the navy at the highest point of efficiency and preparedness. But organization and equipment need to be kept up, otherwise the whole investment is imperilled. This was tersely expressed by President Taft, who declared, after reviewing the fleet: "It's a good navy, but we're wasting money if we don't have a better." We need more cruisers, more destroyers, more colliers, and more men. This means continued interest, on the part of the people and Congress, in maintaining our naval organization at the highest point of efficiency both as to ships and men. Since Mr. Meyer took the naval portfolio, he has worked hard and faithfully to give the people of this country the highest possible return for their heavy naval expenditures; and these reviews prove that he has achieved great results. A strong American navy is not a war menace, but a good investment in the interest of our own security and the world's peace. If the navy of the United States were by some conjectural happening to be suddenly reduced to the strength it possessed before the Spanish-American War, it would be a dire calamity from the standpoint of international harmony. This view is consistent with an earnest desire for the speedy coming of the time when wars shall cease, costly armaments abandoned, and the high seas policed by a small international force.

*Census and
Reapportion-
ment in Canada*

Complete official returns from all the constituencies of Canada indicate that the results of the general election held on September 21 were much closer than at first announced. The Conservatives, of course, have a substantial majority in the Parliament. The last deferred election, that for Yukon, held on October 24, gives the Government a total lead of 48 votes. The popular majority against Sir Wilfrid Laurier and reciprocity, however, was less than 40,000. The census figures were made public last month by the Minister of Agriculture, under whose supervision the enumeration of Canada's population is always taken. The total number of inhabitants of the Dominion is given as 7,081,869. Most Canadians had expected that the enumeration would show they had passed the eight-million mark, and the present figures, which indicate a gain of less than three millions in ten years, are a keen disappointment. Montreal retains the premier place among the cities with a population of 466,000; Toronto follows with 356,000; and Winnipeg is third with 135,000. The new basis of representation in the Parliament, when the reapportionment of seats is made, will be as follows: Quebec, 65 seats, unchanged (the representation of the province of Quebec is fixed by law at 65 members); Ontario, 82, a loss of 4; New Brunswick, 11, a loss of 2; Nova Scotia, 16, a loss of 2; Prince Edward Island, 3, a loss of 1; Manitoba, 15, a gain of 5; British Columbia, 12, a gain of 5; Saskatchewan, 15, a gain of 5; Alberta, 12, a gain of 5; Yukon, 1, unchanged; total 232, an increase of 11. The gain is chiefly in the West, which is Liberal and strongly in favor of reciprocal trade relations with the United States.

*Mr. Borden's
Program*

The Dominion Parliament, which came together on November 15, has been giving most of its attention to the passage of supply measures for the remainder of the fiscal year. It is expected that the new Parliament will have its first regular session in February or March, and that the Government will be ready at that time with its most important legislation. Mr. Borden, the new premier, has taken the reins with a firmness and dignity that have made a most favorable impression at home and abroad. In a recent speech at Halifax he gave as the principal items of his program, the creation of a permanent tariff commission; the improvement of public highways; the reform of the civil service; and the development of transportation facilities. The navy

question is perhaps the most troublesome one now facing the Government. On October 30 the new Postmaster General, Hon. L. P. Pelletier, speaking officially for his chief, declared that at an early date there would be a referendum on the navy question. Mr. Bourassa, the leader of the French Nationalists in Quebec who are bitterly opposed to the policy of a Canadian navy under any circumstances, and whose defection from Mr. Laurier was largely responsible for that statesman's defeat at the polls, demands that Mr. Borden's government repeal the naval bill passed by the Liberals in the last month of their control and submit the whole question to a popular vote. The Government supporters oppose the organization of a Canadian navy. They advocate a direct contribution of money instead of the construction of warships, which, they contend, Canada does not need, and which may involve the Dominion in foreign complications. The tone of official utterances and of the Conservative press is increasingly cordial toward the United States. In welcoming Earl Grey at a banquet in London, on October 24, Colonial Secretary Harcourt emphasized the pleasure of the British Government over the fact that, "aside from the question of reciprocity in trade, during Earl Gray's incumbency practically every outstanding question between Canada



DISAPPOINTMENT AT THE CENSUS FIGURES

Canada (contemplating the late Liberal Government's posthumous infant—the census): "I do not think much of it. In fact, I may say I do not like the skinny thing at all."

From the *Star* (Montreal)



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PRESIDENT FRANCISCO I. MADERO, JR., OF MEXICO
(With his wife, Señora Madero, the "First Lady of Mexico")

and the United States has either been settled or placed in the direct way of settlement."

*Demonstrating
Canada's
Nationhood*

The election of Mr. Andrew Bonar Law to lead the Conservatives in the British House of Commons, to which we refer elsewhere more fully, is one more sign of the growing influence of Canada in the imperial councils. There have been brilliant members of the British Parliament who have been Canadians by birth, and also members of the Government, but until the election of Mr. Bonar Law, no Canadian, nor indeed any other colonial, had been leader of a British party. It is a significant fact that, during the week in which Mr. Law was chosen, the Liberal Government at London agreed to the proposition that "colonials" should henceforth be eligible as members of international prize courts. Canada is more and more determined to guide her own destiny, and it was her argument setting forth the right of British dependencies to have the chief vote in the settling of their own disputes, that prevailed and secured this concession. The Dominion Government also has requested, and the Liberal ministry at London has agreed, that Britain's autonomous colo-

nies have the right to withdraw from the empire's treaties if they so desire. The British Foreign Office is now actually negotiating with eleven foreign governments to recognize this right. Last month also Great Britain approved the Canadian postage stamp, the Dominion having rejected the imperial one. There can be no mistaking the Dominion's attitude. It will hereafter judge of the merits of British quarrels itself, and lend its resources only at its own discretion.

*President
Madero
Inaugurated*

On November 2 the Mexican Congress declared Francisco I. Madero, Jr., and Dr. Pino Juarez, elected respectively President and Vice-President of the Republic, for the unexpired period of the Diaz term. Four days later Señor Madero took the oath of office in the presidential palace in Mexico City. While the elections were held without serious disorder, soon after the balloting had been completed President Madero announced that he intended to alter the electoral methods radically at the earliest possible moment. As at present administered, he believes they give too much opportunity for fraud and intimidation. He has also promised radical law and land reforms. With the exception of an uneasy state of affairs in the state of Morelos, because of the discontent of the followers of Zapata, a bandit leader, and the bitter opposition of the "Centificos," the party which has always upheld the old régime, the new government begins under very favorable circumstances. In an interview with a New York newspaper correspondent the day before his inauguration, Señor Madero pointed out the fact that it was then less than a year since the revolution started. Yet, he said:

I do not think it possible to find a parallel anywhere in history of a revolution involving such important and far-reaching effects as the one just ended in Mexico, accomplished with less public disturbance, loss of life, interruption to business or damage to public or private property. My first task will be to complete the pacification of the country. This will not be difficult, as it means principally convincing certain bands of disturbers that the revolution and the new administration stand for law and order.

*British
Parliamentary
Affairs*

The British Parliament reassembled on October 24 after its summer recess. In his outline of the program for the session, which was to be limited to forty days, Premier Asquith announced that the workingmen's insurance bill would be passed before Christmas. Following the Premier, Chancellor Lloyd-George declared that this was by far the most impor-

tant measure before the Parliament, the "strategic feature" of the government program, and that it would be given right of way until its passage. "We have already set forth in these pages the main provisions of this measure. Mr. Asquith also gave notice that at the next session the government intends to introduce into the Commons a manhood suffrage bill. This measure will not include suffrage for women, although "it will be in such form that the House can extend it to include women, if the House so pleases." Mr. Augustine Birrell, Secretary for Ireland, is authority for the statement that the government Home Rule bill will be submitted to the Commons early in March. The scheme involves the establishment in Ireland of a two-chambered parliament with an executive, that is to say, a cabinet of ministers responsible to it. This Irish legislative body is to have full representative powers and control over all purely Irish affairs.

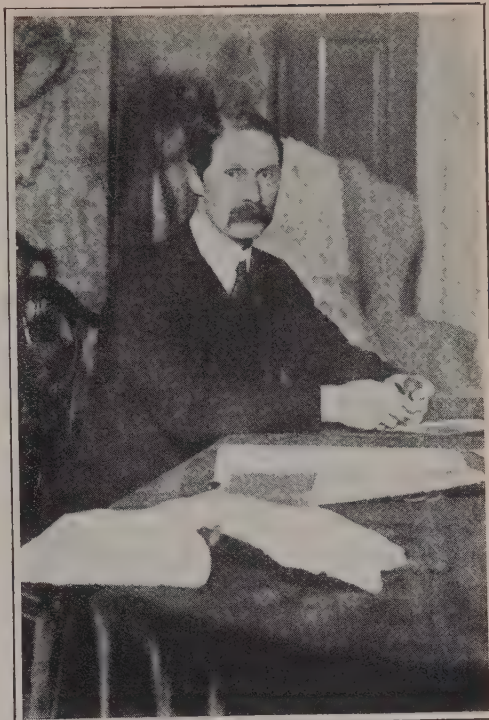
Cabinet Changes

Several important changes in cabinet positions in England have been made during recent weeks.

The one attracting most attention has been the exchange of posts between Mr. Reginald McKenna, since April, 1908, First Lord of the Admiralty, and Mr. Winston Churchill, since February, 1910, Home Secretary. Mr. Churchill's presence at the Admiralty may be due more to his desire to avoid a conflict with British organized labor than to any intention on the part of the Ministry to inaugurate a more vigorous naval policy. Other changes, perhaps equally important but less spectacular, have been made. Mr. Walter Runciman has been transferred from the presidency of the Board of Education to the presidency of the Board of Agriculture. His place at the head of the educational department is taken by Mr. Joseph Albert Pease. Earl Carrington becomes Lord of the Privy Seal. It is persistently rumored that Mr. Asquith will soon be elevated to the peerage and in consequence be transferred to the House of Lords. Mr. Lloyd George would then become leader in the House of Commons, and probably also Prime Minister.

Retirement of Balfour

By far the most important change in the leadership of British politics during the past few weeks has been the retirement of Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, who has directed the Unionist forces in the Commons since 1892, and the choice of Mr. Andrew Bonar Law to succeed him. With the single exception of Pitt, Mr. Balfour has



Photograph by G. G. Bain, New, York

ANDREW BONAR LAW WHO SUCCEEDS MR. BALFOUR
AS LEADER OF THE OPPOSITION IN THE
HOUSE OF COMMONS

been leader of the House of Commons longer than any other man in parliamentary history. The qualifications he has displayed have won him the universal tribute of being, in the words of Mr. Asquith, "the most distinguished member of the greatest deliberative assembly in the world." It is true that Mr. Balfour has never taken a strong hold upon the confidence or affections of his party. He is, first of all, a philosopher whose preference is for viewing politics from an intellectual standpoint. He is one of the most cultured political leaders England has ever known. He is, moreover, the author of at least two books which have achieved permanent distinction, notably his "Defense of Philosophic Doubt" and "The Foundations of Belief." He has never been a successful party leader, chiefly because his mental acuteness and elevation of mind have rather unfitted him for the shift and play and compromise of the political game as it is played in modern parliamentary life. He has been accused of lack of courage, of indecisiveness, and of bad judgment, and his apparently half-hearted support of the policies of protection and imperial preference has antagonized a large section of his party.



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

EDWARD ALBERT, PRINCE OF WALES

(In his cabin just before sailing for India last month to be present at the Durbar)

His Reasons Therefor Ostensibly Mr. Balfour retires because of ill health, although at sixty-three he retains sufficient vigor to play a good game of golf every day and enjoy it. The opposition to his leadership has been growing during recent years, particularly among the reactionary peers. Indeed, during the last session of Parliament, a society was formed, known as the "B. M. G."—Balfour Must Go—Club. The Unionists have demanded a more vigorous, aggressive leader than Mr. Balfour, and his long retention of power in spite of the growing opposition, has apparently brought about a split in his party. His enemies have grouped themselves chiefly under the banner of old Lord Halsbury, the chief of the "Die-in-the-last-Ditchers," who advocated holding out to the bitter end against the government's veto bill. In the course of his speech in the Commons, on November 8, announcing his resignation, Mr. Balfour said that he realized he was still capable of leadership. But, he continued, in the following words of wide human appeal:

I desire to leave the position of heavy responsibility which I hold before I can be suspected of suffering from the most insidious of all diseases—a disease which comes upon those who, without losing their health or their intellect, nevertheless get somewhat petrified in the old courses which they have pursued; whose authority grows because they have been long in the public service or have been great men of science, or business, or whatever it may be, but who cannot deal with the great problems which, in this changing world, are perpetually arising, with all the freshness and elasticity really desirable in those who have the conduct of great concerns.

A. Bonar Law Succeeds

The choice of a successor to Mr. Balfour has long been regarded as lying between Mr. Austen Chamberlain and Mr. Walter Hume Long, both prominent in the councils of the Conservative party, but neither possessed of the parliamentary experience which finally secured for Mr. Andrew Bonar Law the coveted position. Mr. Law, who is a Canadian, having been born in the Province of New Brunswick, but who has represented an English constituency in Parliament for the past eleven years, was formally elected on Novem-

ber 10. His selection is taken to indicate that the Chamberlain policy of protection will be adhered to by the Conservatives. Unlike the brilliant Balfour, Mr. Law is not a college man. He is a plain, forceful speaker, particularly on matters relating to tariffs. A keen American observer of British parliamentary affairs during recent years has remarked that, in ability to handle modern business questions, he might be compared to ex-Senator Aldrich, or Chairman Underwood of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives. Mr. Law will be floor leader in the Commons. He will not, however, like Mr. Balfour, be leader of the Unionist party. That honor rests with Lord Lansdowne, in the upper house, who would undoubtedly be called upon to form a ministry if the Liberals should fall from power.

*King George's
Visit to
India*

King George's journey to India was begun on November 10. This visit to his Asiatic dependency, during which he will be crowned Emperor of India, at the Durbar at Delhi on December 12, is one of those solemn ceremonial functions which British monarchs are so fond of using to impress the minds of their subjects with the grandeur and dignity of kingship. Queen Mary, the Prince of Wales, and Princess Mary accompanied the King, the royal party proceeding on a special steamer by way of the Mediterranean, through the Suez Canal, to Bombay. By means of wireless telegraph arrangements on the Egyptian shore and on the

British warships stationed at intervals along the route, the monarch will be kept in close touch with what is going on in the capital of his realm. In order, however, that the full dignity of an ancient law may be complied with, Britain's royal authority will be exercised during his two months' absence, by a commission appointed for this special purpose, consisting of Prince Arthur of Connaught; Viscount Morley, Lord President of the Privy Council; Lord Loreburn, Lord High Chancellor; and the Archbishop of Canterbury. We shall have occasion, next month, to say more about this Indian trip of King George.

*The
Morocco
Bargain*

The general terms of the bargain at which France and Germany have arrived over the question of their African interests became known last month. On November 4 the agreement regarding Morocco and the Congo regions was signed at Berlin by Herr von Kiderlen-Waechter, the German Foreign Minister, and M. Cambon, the French Ambassador. The full text of the agreement will not be published for some months but its general provisions are known. In brief, it may be said that Germany gives France a free hand in Morocco in exchange for a portion of the French Congo. In return for conceding France's paramountcy in Morocco, Germany gets an extension of the frontier of her territory known as the Kameruns, for several hundred miles eastward along its whole length. A further extension is made at two points



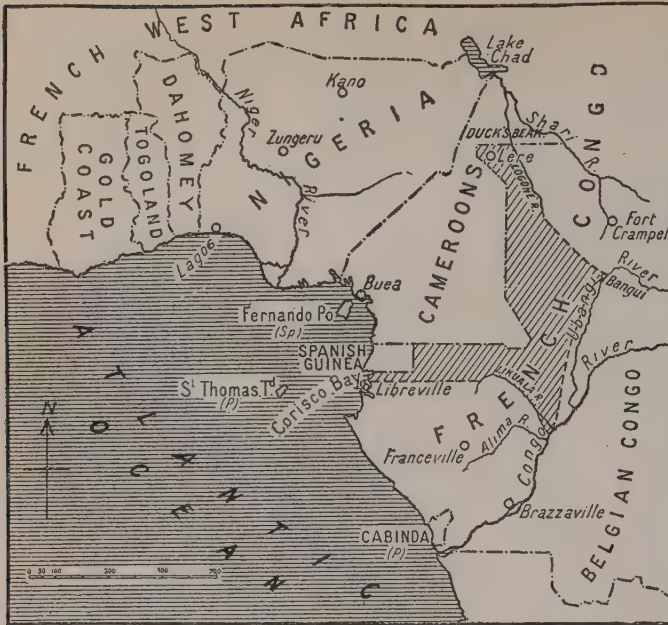
LORD MORLEY
OF BLACKBURN

THE ARCHBISHOP
OF CANTERBURY

PRINCE ARTHUR
OF CONNAUGHT

LORD LOREBURN
THE CHANCELLOR

THE MEN WHO WILL EXERCISE THE ROYAL AUTHORITY IN ENGLAND WHILE KING GEORGE IS BEING CROWNED EMPEROR OF INDIA AT DELHI



WHAT FRANCE AND GERMANY HAVE EXCHANGED
IN CENTRAL AFRICA

(Those parts of the French Congo ceded to Germany are shaded diagonally)

until it gives the Germans water rights on the Ubangi and Congo Rivers, which means access to that great region drained by the Congo River, including the Belgian Congo. Moreover, Germany gains a portion of the Atlantic coast south of Spanish Guinea and a certain stretch of territory back of this Spanish colony. By way of balance the Germans cede to France a portion of the northern corner of the Kameruns, which has always been known as "Duck's Bill," from its peculiar shape, together with certain territory in German Togoland now in litigation at The Hague Tribunal. The territory ceded by France to Germany aggregates some 96,000 square miles, and contains about 1,000,000 inhabitants, with a commerce at present valued at \$2,500,000 annually. Germany in return cedes to France an aggregate of some 20,000 miles of territory. The convention provides in detail for safeguards, and guarantees to protect the commercial interests of Germans in Morocco, and virtually concedes the right of France to establish a protectorate over the Moorish empire at any time, although the word is not used.

The news of the agreement was received with different emotions by the peoples of the two countries most intimately concerned. In France, if we may judge from the press comments, the

French
Relief at the
Settlement

appointment has been expressed in Germany because the so-called compensation in the Congo was not as large as was expected. Germany originally had demanded practically the whole of French Congo, and more economic scope in Morocco than she finally obtained. By process of whittling down and bargaining, the compromise was arrived at which was embodied in the treaty. This was presented to the French Chamber of Deputies upon its reassembling on November 15, and it was expected would be taken up for consideration by the Reichstag during the last days of the month.

German
Dissatis-
faction

So intense was the disappointment in Germany over the "bargain" that the Colonial Minister, Dr. von Lindequist, at once tendered his resignation. In a noteworthy speech in the Reichstag, on November 9, the Imperial Chancellor, Dr. von Bethmann-Holweg, defended the agreement with France, endeavoring to explain the value of Germany's acquisitions, and to disprove the reports that the empire had backed down before the British menace. Germany, the Chancellor declared, had never planned to acquire territory in southern Morocco. She simply wished to clarify the situation, and to have her own position in Africa distinctly and formally acknowledged. The Chancellor stated that the Kai-

treaty has been welcomed with a feeling of relief and satisfaction, although as one of the radical papers puts it: "Even if France has secured a free hand in Morocco, she has ceded too much good French territory in Central Africa under menace of the German bluff." The official view, as expressed by Premier Caillaux, in a public address on November 5, is that "France has recompensed Germany for her withdrawal from Morocco by compensations which do not touch France's living works or essential interests." The republic has gained Morocco, undoubtedly the greatest colonial prize left in the world. When it has settled with Spain, it will have consolidated its empire in North Africa from the Atlantic coast to Tripoli. Much dis-

ser was responsible for the Government's program, which had been adhered to throughout the negotiations, and which had been completely successful. As to the possibility of war with England or any other power, the Chancellor said: "No one can tell whether war sometime will come, but my duty is so to act that war which is avoidable and not demanded by the honor of Germany must be avoided." Following the Chancellor a number of anti-British speeches were made by members of the Reichstag, and the course of Foreign Minister von Kiderlen-Waechter was freely criticised. The most radical condemnation of the Government was made in a speech by Dr. Heydebrand, a Conservative member. The vigorous remarks of this speaker were openly applauded by the Crown Prince Frederick William, who was present, a display of political opinion which has since been openly denounced by the Liberal press of the country, and which has brought an official reprimand from Frederick William's imperial father. The Prince is becoming known for his anti-English sentiments, which he expresses whenever possible.



THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE

(Who last month rather spectacularly expressed his anti-English sentiments in the Reichstag)

More Power
to the
Reichstag

During the few days before the Reichstag was dissolved, Vice Chancellor Delbrück announced to the committee to which the Franco-German treaty over Morocco was referred, that the imperial Government had "found it to be just that Parliament should be consulted in regard to a treaty involving the acquisition or cession of territory." Therefore, after the ratification of the Morocco-Congo pact, the Government "will accept the proposed statute requiring the assent of the Reichstag and the Bundesrath to any change in the boundary of a colony." A few days later the Federal Council (the Bundesrath) adopted a resolution amending the colonial law to this effect. By the conclusion of this agreement over Morocco the partition of Africa by European powers is virtually complete. With the exception of certain inconvenient Spanish claims, which are already in process of being satisfied, France has now no obstacle in the way of her applying to Morocco the same process of gradual assimilation that she so successfully used in Algeria and Tunis. On the dark continent only two countries now remain under native control, Liberia and Abyssinia. Liberia is secure under the protection of the United States, and Abyssinia has demonstrated, at least in the case of the Italians, that she is quite able to take care of herself.

New
African
Railroads

Although the Moroccan accord with Germany will have to be approved by the national legislatures of both countries, and accepted by the powers which signed [the Algeiras convention five years ago, the Paris Government is already proceeding on the assumption that the agreement is a *fait accompli*. Only a few days after the signing of the treaty, a proposition was introduced and discussed in the Chamber of Deputies for the construction of a vast trans-African railway system to exploit all the west and north of the continent, and connect with the other railroad systems now in existence. As we show on the map on the following page, the proposed line would start from Algiers or Oran on the Mediterranean, run by way of Lake Tchad through Belgian territory to Katanga, where it would join the British line already built for 2000 miles northward from the Cape, and eventually connect with the Egyptian lines—and become a part of the famous Cape to Cairo system. The new French line would have two branches, one running from the Sahara to Nigeria, joining West Africa with the Mediterranean; and the other connecting the Western Mediterranean section with the Indian Ocean by means of the Uganda Rail-



HOW FRANCE PROPOSES TO BUILD A SYSTEM OF
AFRICAN CONTINENTAL RAILROADS

way. It now takes fourteen days to make the journey from London to Johannesburg. The proposed railroad would make the trip possible in nine. Of the proposed system, which would aggregate 6600 miles, about 2800 have already been built. At the same time the British India Office is considering the project of a British-controlled railway from Cairo across the Sinai peninsula, Arabia and Persia, to connect directly with the British India lines at Quetta. This would bring the Suez Canal within 2200 miles of the Indian frontier as against more than 3000 miles by the sea route to Bombay. It might prove, in time, a serious competitor to the German-controlled Bagdad Railway, which is already doing so much to develop Asia Minor and the country between it and India.

*The
Turko-Italian
War* M. Delcassé, who, though nominally the Minister of Marine, is really Premier of the present administration in France, is said to have remarked that the Franco-German dispute over Morocco could not properly be submitted for decision to an international court of arbitration, or to any third party arbitrator, because (1) it did not depend on the interpretation of treaties or the settlement of historic claims; (2) because France, having no legal claim to territory in Morocco, and Germany none to land in the Congo, the settlement has been a bargain in ambitions rather than in rights. If the Morocco question could not properly be submitted to arbitration for the reasons just set forth in the words of the keen

French cabinet minister, Italy's dispute with Turkey, which, during the past two months, has so dramatically culminated in actual war, would seem to be just the sort of question for the settlement of which the Hague international tribunal was created. Within the fortnight following the declaration of war by Italy upon Turkey, the Italian navy had swept the Mediterranean. It had bombarded and reduced the defences of Tripoli city, and later of other ports. An Italian expeditionary force of 40,000 men had been landed on the mainland. Entrenching themselves, they had begun their slow, laborious task of making secure their title to the country. There were rumors of an intended naval attack upon Turkish cities in Asia Minor. A new ministry had come into power at Constantinople. We heard a few reports of engagements, of Italian reverses, and of the massacre by both sides of defenseless non-combatants. Rather indefinite reports were circulated of impending governmental changes in both Turkey and Italy, as well as vague allusions to the shifting of European alliances consequent upon Italy's latest venture into Africa. For the most part, however, either owing to the fact that the Italians have found their task unexpectedly difficult and are still in its early stages, or because of the strict censorship of the press which their authorities have exercised, the news and discussion of the war during its second month were confined almost exclusively to the unsuccessful efforts of the Turks to secure mediation by the great world powers, and the splendid campaign conducted by friends of peace all over the world, to compel the submission of the question at issue to the Hague tribunal.

*Why Not
Submit It to
the Hague?*

The occasion offers an excellent opportunity for testing not only the effectiveness of the arbitration machinery which the world has set up at the Dutch capital, but also the sincerity of the world's governments in agreeing to the Hague conventions. Briefly the questions in dispute between the two nations may be stated as follows: (1) Has the Italian government any legitimate grievance against Turkey in the administration of Tripoli which the latter has refused to remedy? (2) Has any power, even if it has grievances, a right on that ground to declare war at short notice, and to seize territory without first exhausting every possible peaceful means of settling the dispute? (3) Do any grievances, however great, justify a power in disregarding two of its own treaties with



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

ITALIAN OFFICERS SEARCHING A CAMEL AT TRIPOLI FOR MUNITIONS OF WAR

the country against whom it has a grievance, and in ignoring its own adherence to the Hague peace agreements? The Italian point of view is that it has legitimate grievances against Turkey for which no adequate remedy has been furnished. It being impossible to get from the government at Constantinople any satisfaction for alleged injuries and grievances, Italy, in order to protect her subjects and property in Tripoli, claims she had no alternative but to seize and occupy the territory already allotted to her by the consent of the great European powers. She contends further that if her seizure of Tripoli is a violation of her own treaties and the general agreement at the Hague, she has done nothing worse or more culpable than France has done in Morocco, Germany in China, in seizing Kiauchou, and Great Britain in South Africa.

Efforts Toward Arbitration

The Turks contend that they are ready and willing to redress the Italian grievances, whatever they may be, in regard to Tripoli. They denounce Italy for disregarding her adhesion to the

treaties of 1856 (after the Crimean War) and 1878 (after the Berlin Conference), both of which guaranteed the territorial integrity of the Ottoman dominions, and for refusing to submit the questions at present in dispute to some international tribunal as provided by the Hague conventions. The government at Constantinople insists that it is, and always has been, not only willing, but anxious to have the disputed questions settled by arbitration. It has made formal appeals to most of the countries of Europe, as well as to the United States, to intervene to the extent of demanding that the dispute be arbitrated. The official replies of these governments have not yet been recorded in the public prints. The substance of them, however, is that peace is only possible by recognizing the *fait accompli*, which means that the basis of all peace arrangements is that Tripoli is to be henceforth Italian. Against this the Turks protest vigorously. On another page this month ("Turkey's Determination to Resist," page 737) we quote editorials from representative Turkish publications setting forth the Ottoman point of view.

Should Arbitration be Compelled?

Mr. W. T. Stead, editor of the *English Review of Reviews*, whose enthusiastic and persistent interest in the general peace movement is universally known, devotes a great deal of space in his November number, to setting forth the case of the civilized world against Italy for refusing to submit to arbitration. Early in October, Mr. Stead was sent to Constantinople as a special emissary of the International Arbitration Emergency Committee, which had the support of many of the most eminent public men of Great Britain and the continent, as well as a number of organizations and groups of Socialists and other classes opposed to war. Another emissary was sent to Rome. Italy, however, declined to permit any international authority to decide upon the justice of her claims. Mr. Stead was received with honors at the Turkish capital, not only by private individuals, but by government officials and by the Sultan himself. In the leading newspapers of Constantinople he expressed his views, which were taken to be the opinions of peace advocates all over the world.

Mr. Stead's Plan

Writing in his own *Review*, he surveys the entire history of the dispute, points out how it should have been submitted for settlement to some international arbitration body, and calls upon the great powers of the world, including the United States, to stop the war. The Italian government, he maintains, is waging war principally to gain territory and markets. Therefore civilization should boycott Italy until she agrees to call off her warships and soldiers, and let some peaceful tribunal decide the justice or injustice of her claims. He further outlines a scheme, which he says has the approval of the ambassadors of most of the European countries stationed in Constantinople, to send a deputation, consisting of representatives of all the races subject to Turkey, on a tour to all the European capitals, a delegate from the country visited being added at each city to protest against the action of Italy in waging war upon Turkey before having exhausted all possible peaceful means to settle the dispute. Mr. Stead's idea is that by public speeches and interviews with governmental officials in the different countries traversed, a popular opinion could be aroused, which, if it does not succeed in the present war, will "ripen opinion in favor of a much more drastic and compulsory international court than that which at present exists."

A Russo-Italian Secret Agreement

It appears that the attack by Italy on Turkey did not come as such a surprise to some of the European governments as it was at first said to have been. The subject had been discussed between the French and Italian governments through the intermediary of the French Ambassador to the Quirinal, M. Camille Barrère, who went from Rome to Paris some time before the Italians took action. Now it transpires that a secret agreement between Russia and Italy was arrived at during the meeting between the Czar Nicholas and King Victor Emanuel at Racconigi near Turin during the visit of the former to Italy, a couple of years ago. This agreement covers not only the occupation of Tripoli, but provides also for the raising of the question of the right of Russia to the free navigation of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles for her ships of war. In what light this would be regarded by those powers which have so strenuously opposed Russia on this point in the past, is not very clear. To concede it would be to lay Constantinople open to a *coup de main* at any moment and nullify the results of the Crimean War and the Berlin Treaty of 1878; while to refuse it would possibly separate France and England from the *Triple Entente*, and perhaps bring about a renewal of the *Dreikaiserbund* of the years preceding the war of 1877. It may be said that the peace of Europe depends on the maintenance of the Turk at Constantinople, but on what conditions has yet to be determined. The raising of the question of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles would certainly force a radical solution.

The Alleged Italian Atrocities

The entire civilized world was shocked last month by news reported through apparently trustworthy correspondents of atrocities committed by Italians on Arabs in Tripoli City and its vicinity. General Caneva, the Italian commander, was accused of deliberately shooting down soldiers and non-combatants, men, women, and children, without even a pretense of a trial or warning. An attack had been made by the natives upon the Italian lines, treacherously, the Italians claim, after a truce had been arranged. The testimony of reliable authorities on the spot differs as to whether or not the Italian commander acted with undue severity. War is, of course, just what General Sherman said it was. The world, moreover, cannot forget the long and frightful record of the Turks in the matter of cruelty and murder. The na-



Photograph by The American Press Association, New York

THE WATER FRONT OF HANKOW, THE CHICAGO OF CHINA

(Where some of the fiercest fighting of the revolution took place)

tions, however, have not expected Italy to descend to that level. Even with the provocation of treacherous attacks and poisoned wells (which are also charged against the Arabs) it would seem that the Italian commander should have held in his men with more vigor.

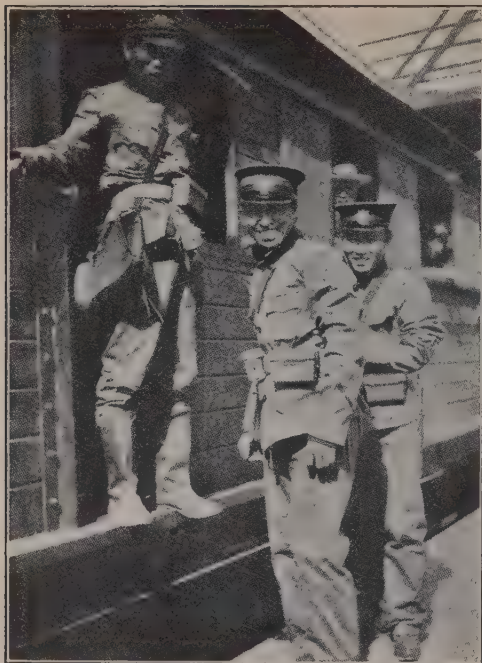
Turkey Protests to the Powers

The Turkish Ambassador to the United States at once presented a protest to our state department calling upon our government to join in condemning this "violation of the rules of warfare." At the same time a large and impressive gathering of Italians in New York City, attended by many of the most eminent representatives of their nation in the country, under the chairmanship of the Baron di San Severino, of the New York Italian Committee of Protest, expressed indignation at what they termed the gross and wilful misrepresentation of the foreign newspaper correspondents, and sent cablegrams of loyalty and confidence to King Victor Emanuel and General Caneva, as well as a telegram to President Taft, protesting against what was termed the unjust attacks of sections of the American press. The Italian Government itself has categorically denied the reports of atrocities. It should be said further in support of the Italian case, that Mr. John Quimby Wood, the American Consul at Tripoli City, when he was offered transportation from the country by the American naval commander in Tripolitan waters, because of the supposed danger from Italian ferocity, laughingly replied he had seen none of it and that he proposed to stay at his post. The Turkish protest has been carried even further and appeal made to the British government

for active intervention. Furthermore, a delegation of the Young Turk Committee, it was reported last month, had set out from Constantinople to reach Port Said at the time King George arrives there, and petition him to intervene to end the war. When the whole truth is known it will probably be found that General Caneva's soldiers were goaded to frenzy by Arab treachery, and that what actually happened in Tripoli between October 23 to 26 has been greatly exaggerated.

End of the Manchu Régime

The rebellion in China has already produced the results which seemed inevitable from the very first to those familiar with the extent to which opposition to the Manchu government had gone. Whatever may be the final outcome of the revolt there can be no doubt that the old Manchu régime is at an end. It is a long, long story, that of the sufferings and injuries of the Chinese people at the hands of their corrupt and inefficient autocratic rulers. The history of the revolutionary movement is graphically set forth on another page this month by Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke whose first-hand information upon Far Eastern affairs is rendered more valuable at this time by his background of knowledge of the workings of the Oriental mind. By the middle of last month the end of the old order had been accomplished. Despite the desultory successes of the Imperial troops, the revolutionary armies had in the main, triumphed. The government at Peking had conceded everything asked for by the progressive element; and Yuan Shih Kai, in many respects the strongest and most modern of China's political leaders, had



THE NEW TOMMY ATKINS OF CHINA
(From a snapshot taken last month at a railroad station
in the Yangtse Valley)

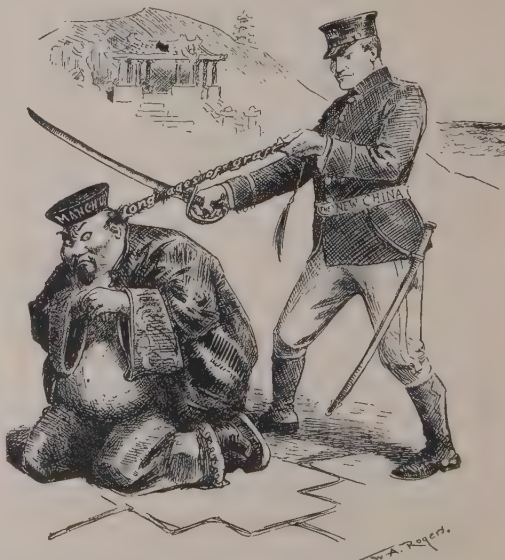
accepted the premiership under the new government, which will be, whatever its form, a constitutional one. In little more than a month's fighting the revolutionists had gained complete control of ten provinces out of the twenty-two of which the Empire is composed.

The Puzzle of Chinese Names Chinese life and the conditions surrounding it are so unfamiliar to Americans that it is difficult for us of the Occident to understand what has been going on during the few weeks of fighting in the valley of the Yellow River. The names of the Chinese provinces and cities are jargon to our ears, and this adds to the confusion which makes the map unintelligible. When we remember, however, that each of the strange syllables in a Chinese geographical or personal name has a distinct meaning of its own, and an appropriate meaning when grouped with other syllables, the map becomes clearer. Preparatory, then, to a rapid summary of what has taken place since October 10, when the rebels took up arms and captured Wuchang, it will be worth while to note the meanings of a few of the Chinese geographical names. The syllable *King*, for example, as it appears in the names of the cities Peking and Nanking, means capital;

Peking being the capital of the north, and Nanking the capital of the south. Other syllables which appear frequently are: *Pe*, as in Peking and Hupeh, means north; *Nan*, as in Nanking and Honan, means south; *Ho*, as in Hwang-ho and Honan, means river; *Kiang*, as in Yangtse-kiang and Kiangsi, means stream; *Chau* or *Chow*, as in Fuchau and Suchau, means place (a section of land); *Fu*, as in Sian-fu and Yunnan-fu, means city; *Si*, as in Kuangsi and Sian-fu, means west; *Tau*, as in Tsingtau, means island; *Hai*, as in Shanghai, means sea; *Shan*, as in Shantung, means mountain; *Tung*, as in Kuangtung, means east; and *Hu*, as in Hupeh, means lake.

Progress of the Revolution

By the capture of Wuchang the rebels not only secured full possession of the provincial treasury containing more than a million dollars, but obtained the support of a number of Government troops. From that time on the desertions from the Government to the rebel cause were constant and increasing in numbers. Wuchang is the provincial capital and an important commercial center. In a short time the rebels had secured the arsenal at the important city of Hankow, and on October 14 General Li Yuan Heng, commander-in-chief of the revolutionists, set up military authority in the cities of Wuchang, Hankow, and Hanyang. The Government then took steps to suppress the rebellion, but without success. On October 17, after an engagement of some importance, the revolu-



THE MOST UNKINDEST CUT OF ALL
From the *Herald* (New York)

tionary forces took the city of Kiukiang. This established their control of five provinces. A rebel defeat at Hankow on October 18 was announced, but this was really a Government reverse, for the rebels retained control of the railway. Within a week the entire valley of the Yangtse-kiang was seething with revolt. On October 24, the weakness of the Manchu dynasty having been demonstrated, the National Assembly demanded that the throne yield certain reforms in order to save the empire. It demanded a Parliament with full power and amnesty for all rebels. On that same day several large cities were occu-

pied by the revolutionists, and it was then that General Heng proclaimed the Republic of China, with himself as President. On October 28 the imperial forces recaptured Hankow, and foreign warships, particularly those of Japan, Germany, Great Britain, and the United States, appeared on the scene. Yuan Shih Kai was put in command of the imperial army and navy at the same time with dictatorial powers.

*Edict of
the Baby
Emperor*

On October 30, which will be considered henceforth one of the greatest dates in Chinese history, the five-year-old Emperor Pu-Yi, issued an edict announcing the throne's complete surrender, and admitting, as no Manchu ruler has done before, serious defects in the government that need reform. In quaint and pathetic phraseology, the infant ruler was made to say that "being without political skill," he had not employed men properly. "I have employed too many nobles in political positions, which contravenes constitutionalism." When reform is urged, he continued, "the gentry seize the opportunity to embezzle."

All these things are my own fault, and I hereby announce to the world that I swear to reform, and, with our soldiers and people, to carry out the constitution faithfully, modifying legislation, promoting the interests of the people and abolishing their hardships, all in accordance with their wishes and interests. The old laws that are unsuitable will be abolished. The union of the Manchus and Chinese, mentioned by the late Emperor, I shall carry out now.

Immediately after the proclamation of this edict, Yuan Shih Kai was offered the premiership of the empire. He hesitated for a few days, but finally accepted and formed a provisional cabinet. Meanwhile Manchu and Chinese met in various parts of the empire, and killed one another with horrifying disregard of age or sex. On November 3 the draft of a new constitution was drawn up by the National Assembly, and accepted by the Emperor. It provided that this monarch should reign forever, but that his power should be limited by a constitution. More important still, it provided that Parliament should control the budget. On the same day that the constitution was accepted, the triumphant revolutionists occupied the city of Shanghai, and two days later they took Suchow. During the next few days Fuchau and Canton went over to the rebels, and this gave them the control of all Central China, with the exception of the cities of Hankow and Nanking.



PU-YI, THE FIVE-YEAR-OLD CHINESE EMPEROR
(Who says he has made many mistakes through inexperience)

*Some
of the
Personalities*

The revolution has reached a point where its plans and intentions are of grave concern to the rest of the world, and it was evident, early last month, that the great powers of Europe and the United States had become concerned for the safety of their nationals. There were reports that Japan, Great Britain, Russia, and Germany would send troops to Peking, and that the government at Washington had decided to despatch a regiment of American troops from Manila to help guard the railroad from Tientsin to Peking. It would seem that the really big men of the day in China are Yuan Shih Kai, General Li Yuan Heng, commander of the revolutionary forces, and Dr. Wu Ting Fang, former Chinese Ambassador to the United States, who is Foreign Minister in the new government. American interests in China have received vigorous and highly efficient protection, during the brief absence of Mr. Calhoun from his post, by Mr. Edward Thomas Williams, a little about whose personality and achievements in Oriental diplomacy is set forth on another page this month. One of the biggest men at the Chinese capital for years has been Dr. George E. Morrison, Peking correspondent of the *London Times*. Dr. Morrison has been correspondent for "The Thunderer" in the Far East since 1894. His insight into Chinese conditions and the workings of the Chinese mind has made his regular letters to the *Times* models of accuracy and comprehen-



Photograph by The American Press Association, New York
DR. WU TING FANG
(Formerly Chinese Ambassador to the United States, now
Foreign Minister of the revolutionary government)

siveness. The test for news of uncertain authenticity from Peking has now come to be "What does Dr. Morrison say?"

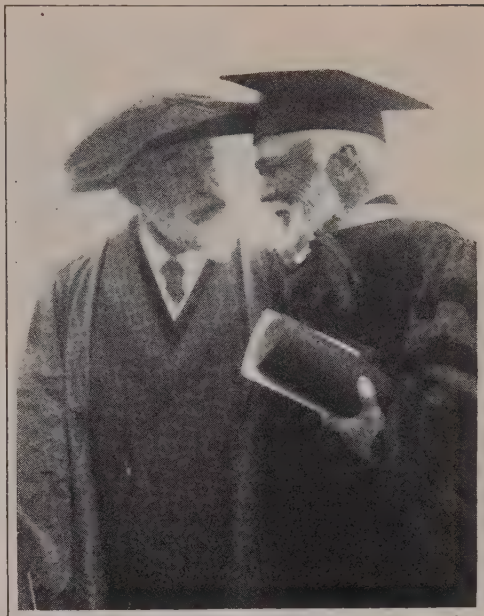


Photograph by The American Press Association, New York

THE SOLDIERS OF NEW CHINA—BUGLERS AND DRUMMERS AT THE HEAD OF A COLUMN

Recent
Progress in
Aviation

By careful and steady flying, Calbraith P. Rodgers on November 5 practically completed at Los Angeles his long journey of 3220 miles across the continent. This eventful trip offered many obstacles, and consumed about fifty days. The journey could of course have been made by train in one-tenth the time, but the remarkable thing is that it was not made by train, but by means of a flying machine; and it took all the hardihood of the old-time American pioneers to accomplish this modern feat. Incidentally, also, Rodgers made a world's record for a long distance journey by aeroplane, and showed how much continuous flying may be done by avoiding such fancy performances as exhibition "spirals" and "dips." At Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, the Wright brothers have evolved a glider—a motorless aeroplane—that has enabled Orville Wright to remain aloft for almost ten minutes in the face of a forty-mile gale. These pioneers of aviation, after a good deal of quiet and diligent labor, seem again to have achieved an epoch-making triumph. They have apparently solved the problem of remaining in the air indefinitely, even without a motor, provided there is sufficient supporting wind. As a further step in the conquest of the air, Mr. Wright believes that man will in time develop his now dormant "bird sense," which will enable him to maneuver about in the air at will, guarding against and taking advantage of all unseen air currents. Military aviation is also rapidly advancing. A squad of monoplanes and bi-



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AMBASSADOR BRYCE AND ANDREW CARNEGIE AT
THE INSTALLATION OF CHANCELLOR BROWN OF
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

planes went with the Italian expedition to Tripoli, bombs being dropped from the air into Turkish camps, and some aerial scouting being done to advantage. The Italian Government is counting on the further use of flying machines in the prosecution of the war.



CALBRAITH P. RODGERS

(Who practically completed his journey across the continent
by aeroplane last month)

New
University
Presidents

The number of academic inaugurations held in the United States during the months of October and November was probably unprecedented. The series was begun with the installation of Dr. Guy Potter Benton as president of the University of Vermont. Then in rapid succession President George Vincent at the University of Minnesota, President Ellen F. Pendleton at Wellesley College, President Lemuel H. Murlin at Boston University, and Chancellor Elmer Ellsworth Brown at New York University, were duly inducted into office. Large numbers of college and university officers and graduates attended these several functions. At New York, on November 9, there was an especially notable gathering of delegates and guests of honor, including Ambassador Bryce and the Lord Rector of the University of Aberdeen, known to the "home folks" as Mr. Andrew Carnegie.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From October 20 to November 17, 1911)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

October 23.—Protests against the reorganization plan of the Tobacco Trust are filed by the Attorneys-General of Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina.

October 24.—The Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Commission reaches an agreement at Washington on a basis of legislation to be recommended to Congress.

October 26.—The Government brings suit in the United States Circuit Court at Trenton to dissolve the United States Steel Corporation, alleging it to be a combination in restraint of trade.

October 27.—Judge Gary, chairman of the board of directors of the Steel Corporation, issues a statement deploring the possible effect of the Government's suit and denying the existence of a monopoly.

October 30.—President Taft, speaking before the Hamilton Club of Chicago, refers to the possibility of a Republican defeat in 1912. . . . The Government files its answer to the reorganization plan of the Tobacco Trust.

October 31.—Representative Littleton, of New York, in an address before the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, urges the repeal of the Sherman Anti-Trust law and the substitution of a new and broader act. . . . The Post-Office Department's books for the year ending June 30, last, show a surplus of \$219,118.

November 1.—The Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Meyer, reviews more than one hundred warships in the Hudson River off New York City, the largest American fleet ever assembled.

November 3.—The constitutionality of the principle of the initiative and referendum is argued before the United States Supreme Court in two cases brought from Oregon.

November 6.—Governor Plaisted, of Maine, and the Council accept certain corrections in the vote at the September election, which change the result and defeat the proposal to repeal the prohibitory liquor clause in the constitution.

November 7.—Elections are held in eighteen States; Kentucky, Massachusetts, Mississippi, and New Mexico elect Democratic governors, and Maryland and Rhode Island elect Republican governors; Rudolph Blankenburg, reform candidate of the "Keystone" party, is elected mayor of Philadelphia; Democratic mayors replace Republicans in Cincinnati (Henry T. Hunt), Cleveland (Newton D. Baker), and Columbus (George J. Karb), Socialist mayors are elected in Schenectady, N. Y.; New Castle, Pa., and ten towns in Ohio; a Socialist candidate for the legislature is successful for the first time in New York and in Rhode Island; the first State election held in New Mexico results in the election of a Democratic governor and a Republican legislature; the Republicans regain control of the lower houses of the New York and New Jersey legislatures.

Following are the names of the governors-elect: Kentucky. James B. McCreary (Dem.)

Maryland. Phillips Lee Goldsborough (Rep.)
Massachusetts. Eugene N. Foss (Dem.)*
Mississippi. Earl Brewer (Dem.)
New Mexico. William C. McDonald (Dem.)
Rhode Island. Aram J. Pothier (Rep.)*

November 8.—The United States Circuit Court at New York approves the Tobacco Trust's reorganization plan, rejecting the suggestions of the Attorney-General. . . . Several thousand drivers and helpers in the Street Cleaning Department of New York City go on strike as a protest against night collection of refuse.

November 12.—President Taft reaches the White House after an absence of eighty-seven days.

November 14.—The Supreme Court of Missouri fines the International Harvester Company \$50,000 and forbids it to do business in that State unless it separates itself from the New Jersey parent corporation.

November 15.—A sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce begins hearings at Washington on proposed anti-trust legislation.

November 16.—Thirteen officials of the Baltimore and Ohio and Louisville & Nashville Railroads are indicted by a federal grand jury at New York, charged with rebating.

November 17.—John W. Garrett, minister to Venezuela, is appointed minister to Argentina.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

October 20.—The report of the British Railway Commission upholds the right of the companies to refuse to recognize labor unions.

October 21.—King Alfonso signs a decree re-establishing constitutional guarantees throughout Spain.

October 22.—Elections for membership in the lower house of the new Alsace-Lorraine parliament result in the choice of twenty Clericals and five Socialists; a second ballot is necessary in half the districts.

October 23.—A number of important changes in the British cabinet are announced, Winston Churchill and Reginald McKenna exchanging portfolios. . . . The German Imperial Chancellor, in the Reichstag, defends the Government's tariff system against attacks resulting from the high cost of living.

October 24.—The British Parliament reassembles. . . . More than fifty Mexican soldiers are killed in a battle with the rebels near Milpa Alta.

October 26.—A new ministry is formed in Nicaragua.

October 27.—Three members of the Mexican cabinet resign as a result of attacks on the Government's military inefficiency.

October 29.—The Swiss elections result in the choice of 110 Radicals, 44 Conservatives, 9 Socialists, and 7 Independents.

* Re-elected

November 4.—The Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs, addressing the Senate, urges a cautious increase in military efficiency.

November 6.—Francisco I. Madero, Jr., is inaugurated President of Mexico.

November 7.—Premier Asquith announces that a Manhood Suffrage bill will soon be introduced in the British Parliament, giving one vote to every male citizen.

November 8.—Arthur J. Balfour resigns the leadership of the Opposition in the British Parliament. . . . The first Portuguese cabinet resigns.

November 9.—During a debate in the German Reichstag, during which the Chancellor defended his Moroccan policy, the Crown Prince applauds attacks made upon the agreement with France.

November 10.—Andrew Bonar Law is agreed upon as Opposition leader by the different factions of the Unionist party in Great Britain.

November 11.—King George and Queen Mary sail from Portsmouth, England, for the durbar at Delhi, India. . . . The German Kaiser reprimands the Crown Prince for openly siding with the opponents of the Government's Moroccan policy.

November 14.—The German Government announces that henceforth the Reichstag's assent will be necessary to all treaties changing the boundaries of any part of the empire. . . . The Bavarian Diet is dissolved.

November 16.—The Duke of Connaught opens the twelfth Canadian Parliament.

November 17.—Premier Asquith states to a delegation of suffragettes that he does not believe that woman suffrage would be advantageous for the nation.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

October 22.—The Spanish Government disarms 400 Portuguese Royalists.

October 23.—The German Chancellor states in the Reichstag that America as a source of meat supply is impossible, owing to the Texas fever; the American Secretary of Agriculture, Mr. Wilson, denies the possibility of affected beef being exported.

October 25.—S. Alfred Sze, a graduate of Cornell University, is appointed minister from China to the United States.

October 29.—The Persian ex-Shah's Turcomans, aided by Russian troops and gunboats, defeat a Persian Government force near Bender-Gez.

November 2.—The second portion of the so-called Moroccan agreement between France and Germany, concerning the Congo, is agreed upon at Berlin.

November 6.—The Persian Government refuses to comply with Russia's demands growing out of the seizure of the property of a brother of the ex-Shah, claimed by Russia to be mortgaged to a Russian bank.

November 7.—Colombia occupies the custom-house station at Pedrera, in disputed territory, evacuated by Peru.

November 14.—The British Government informs Persia that the employment of British subjects would antagonize Russia. . . . Representatives of Spain and Germany confer regarding the cession to the latter of Spanish Guinea.

November 16.—Mr. Shuster, Persia's American financial agent, refuses to recede from his position, and Russia orders troops to Persia.

WAR BETWEEN ITALY AND TURKEY

October 19.—The Italian fleet under Admiral Aubrey bombards Benghazi, killing several hundred civilian inhabitants besides large numbers of the defenders; a landing force of 4000 men meets with stubborn resistance from Arabs and Turks.

October 23.—More than 300 Italians are killed in an engagement at Tripoli.

October 24.—The Italian blockade of the port of Tripoli is raised.

October 26.—An attack of 10,000 Turkish and Arabian cavalry on the land works around Tripoli is repulsed with heavy losses on both sides. . . . A proclamation of neutrality in the war between Italy and Turkey is made public at Washington. . . . Italy notifies the powers of the practical annexation of Tripoli.

October 28.—Italian army officials highly commend the use of aeroplanes in discovering the movements and strength of the enemy.

October 31.—An Italian aviator succeeds in dropping bombs in the midst of a Turkish encampment.

November 2.—Foreign newspaper correspondents in Tripoli report that several thousand Arabs—men, women and children—have been massacred by the Italian troops.

November 4.—It is estimated that the Italian forces have lost half the territory around the city of Tripoli which they held on October 23.

November 5.—The United States is appealed to by Turkey to exert its influence to stop the alleged Italian barbarities.

November 9.—The Italian Minister of War, in a message to the State Department at Washington, maintains that the Arabs began the recent atrocities.

November 10.—A large force of Arabs and Turks again attacks the defenses around the city of Tripoli, but is repulsed.

November 16.—Italy consents to postpone her naval operations in Turkish waters.

THE REVOLUTION IN CHINA

October 22.—The second session of the National Assembly is opened at Peking amid great splendor and formality.

October 23.—Government officials admit that the cities of I-Chang and Hwang-Chau, above and below Hankow, have fallen into the hands of the revolutionists.

October 25.—The National Assembly impeaches Sheng-Hsuan-Huai and demands his dismissal; as Minister of Posts and Communications he had arranged the foreign railway loan. . . . The newly appointed Tartar General Feng Sen is assassinated upon his arrival at Canton.

October 25-26.—It is reported that the revolutionists have captured the cities of Sin-Gan-Fu, Kiu-Kiang, Nan-Chang, Kwei-Lin, and Tchen-Chou.

October 26.—The throne yields to the National Assembly and dismisses Sheng-Hsuan-Huai.

October 27.—Gen. Yin Tchang, Minister of War, is ordered to turn over his forces to Yuan Shih-kai,



STATUE OF ROBERT G. INGERSOLL, RECENTLY
UNVEILED AT PEORIA, ILL.
(Fritze Triebel, Sculptor)

who assumes supreme command over the army and navy.

October 29.—It is announced at Peking that an \$18,000,000 loan has been arranged through a French and Belgian syndicate.

October 30.—Two edicts are issued in the name of the infant Emperor, acknowledging errors of policy and promising early and complete reforms.

November 1.—The imperial troops are victorious after several days' fighting around Hankow, and are alleged to have massacred men, women, and children and burned a portion of the city.

November 3.—The throne accepts the preliminary constitution drawn at a single sitting of the National Assembly. . . . Shanghai, except for the foreign concessions, is in the hands of the insurgents.

November 6.—The revolutionists form a cabinet at Shanghai; Wu Ting-fang, former minister to the United States, is chosen director of foreign affairs.

November 7.—The National Assembly appoints Yuan Shih-kai Premier.

November 8.—The revolutionists capture Foo-Chow.

November 10.—More than 1000 of the native inhabitants of Nanking are massacred by the imperial troops stationed there, following the failure of an attack on the city by the revolutionists.

November 13.—A movement is begun at Mukden to establish the autonomy of Manchuria. . . . Yuan Shih-kai arrives at Peking to discuss with the Government measures for pacifying the revolutionists. . . . Gen. Wu Lu-cheng, governor of Shen-Si province, is assassinated by Manchus; the Viceroy of Nanking commits suicide.

November 14.—A second republic is set up at Chi-Fu, province of Shan-Tung.

November 15.—Yuan Shih-kai accepts the premiership.

November 16.—The new cabinet of Yuan Shih-kai is announced, containing the names of several active sympathizers with the revolution.

November 17.—Demonstrations are made at Tien-tsin by British, French, and Russian troops.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

October 20.—The convention of the National American Woman Suffrage Association is held at Louisville, Ky.

October 24.—Orville Wright, in his experimental "glider," remains stationary in the air during a gale at Kill Devil Hill, N. C.

October 25.—A navy hydro-aeroplane is driven by Lieutenants Ellyson and Towers from Annapolis, Md., to Buckroe Beach, Va., 145 miles, in 147 minutes.

October 27.—Dr. Simon Flexner, of New York, announces a new treatment for spinal meningitis, which will prevent the spread of the disease.

October 28.—Announcement is made at the Vatican that Archbishops Farley of New York and O'Connell of Boston, and Mgr. Falconio, the papal representative at Washington, will be created cardinals on November 27, with fourteen prelates of other countries (see page 692).

October 31.—Prof. John J. Montgomery, an eminent aeroplane inventor, is killed while experimenting with a glider at San Jose, Cal.

November 2.—Six thousand taxicab chauffeurs in London quit work.

November 4.—Melvin Vaniman makes a fairly successful trial flight in his dirigible balloon *Akron* at Atlantic City.

November 5.—Calbraith P. Rodgers, arriving at Pasadena, Cal., completes an aeroplane trip across the continent from New York, begun on September 17, covering 3220 miles.

November 7.—The Nobel prize for chemistry is awarded to Madame Curie, of Paris, and for physics to Prof. Wilhelm Wien, of Wuerzburg University.

November 9.—The granite temple built over the Lincoln cabin at Hodgenville, Ky., is dedicated, President Taft making the principal address. . . . The Nobel Prize for literature is awarded to Maurice Maeterlinck, the Belgian author.

November 10.—Andrew Carnegie gives \$25,000,000 to the recently incorporated Carnegie Corporation of New York, for the purpose of taking over and carrying on his philanthropic work.

November 11.—Nearly twenty persons are killed during a cyclone which struck the Middle West and the Lake region. . . . Differences between the managers and exhibitors at the International Art Exhibition of Rome results in the closing of the American pavilion.

November 13.—The French War Department's aeroplane speed race is won by an American, Charles Weymann, who covered the 180 miles at the rate of 72 miles per hour.

November 15.—The Standard Oil Company notifies its stockholders of the proportion of shares of subsidiary companies which they will receive in the dissolution plan.

November 16.—The Rev. Dr. George Harris resigns as president of Amherst College. . . . The National Municipal League, in session at Richmond, decides to study exhaustively the question of local option. . . . A severe earth shock is felt at Stuttgart and Frankfurt, in Southern Germany.

November 17.—Switzerland experiences the worst earthquake in fifty years. . . . The St. Louis & San Francisco Railroad completes a deal with the Louisville & Nashville by which it acquires a route to Mobile and New Orleans.

OBITUARY

October 19.—Herbert G. Squires, formerly United States minister to Panama and to Cuba, 52.

October 20.—Morris Israel, a prominent banker of Charleston, S. C., 75.

October 21.—Ex-Congressman Sydney E. Mudd of Maryland, 53. . . . Homer Heminway, a prominent manufacturer of sewing silk, 78. . . . Right Rev. Javier Junguito, Bishop of Panama.

October 23.—William Hellier Onslow, fourth Earl of Onslow, a noted English statesman, 58. . . . Mgr. Thomas John Capel, of Sacramento, Cal., 75. . . . Louis R. Ehrlich, a noted art collector and dealer of New York, 62. . . . John R. Walsh, formerly a prominent Chicago banker, 62.

October 24.—Ida Lewis Wilson, the famous keeper of the Lime Rock lighthouse at Newport, R. I., 72. . . . Robert Mather, former president of the Rock Island lines, 52. . . . George F. Jelly, M.D., an eminent alienist of Boston, 69.

October 25.—Former Congressman James O. Patterson, of South Carolina, 54.

October 27.—Rear-Adm. James H. Sands, U. S. N., retired, 66.

October 28.—Frederick Morgan Crunden, for thirty-two years librarian of the St. Louis Public Library, 64.

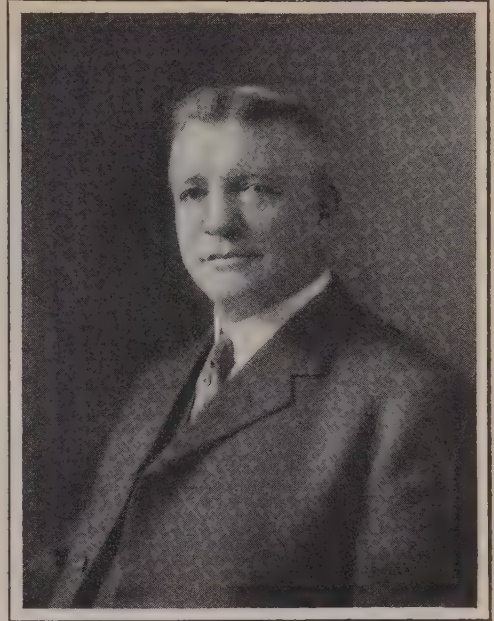
October 29.—Joseph Pulitzer, proprietor of the New York *World* and the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, 64 (see frontispiece).

October 30.—Brig.-Gen. Patrick Henry Ray, U. S. A., retired, 70. . . . Robert Hattin Lisle, formerly pay director of the United States navy, 67. . . . George William Jones, professor emeritus of mathematics at Cornell, 74.

October 31.—Prof. J. J. Montgomery, a noted inventor of aeroplanes, 50. . . . Thomas Rowe, a prominent New York architect, 45.

November 2.—Kyrle Bellew, the noted actor, 54. . . . H. Victor Newcomb, former president of the Louisville & Nashville Railroad, 67. . . . Rear-Adm. Clifford Hardy West, U. S. N., retired, 65. . . . Daniel D. Drawbaugh, who claimed to be the original inventor of the telephone, 84. . . . Lady Colin Campbell, a well-known English art critic and author.

November 3.—Norman J. Colman, the first Secretary of the Department of Agriculture, 84. . . . Dr. James Williams, contributor of legal articles to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 60.



THE LATE JOHN MEIGS

(For thirty-five years head of "the Hill" at Pottstown, Pa., one of the great secondary schools of the country)

November 5.—Sir Hugh Gilzean Reid, publisher of the first halfpenny newspaper in Great Britain, 75.

November 6.—Prof. William Callyhan Robinson, dean of the law school of the Catholic University of America, 77. . . . Lieut.-Col. Augustus S. Nicholson, U. S. M. C., retired, 81. . . . Sir John Carling, a former member of the Canadian cabinet, 83. . . . John Meigs, the well-known principal of the Hill School, Pottstown, Pa., 59.

November 8.—William Clark Russell, the noted author of sea stories, 67. . . . Dr. James B. Jones, president of William Wood College (Mo.), 65.

November 9.—Howard Pyle, the noted author and illustrator, 58. . . . Rev. Dr. Henry Mansell, an early Methodist missionary in India, 76. . . . Edmund Schuecker, a noted German harpist.

November 10.—Felix Ziem, the French painter of Venetian scenes, 90. . . . Martin I. J. Griffin, a well-known historian of the Catholic church, 69.

November 11.—John McMurdie Warner, the Philadelphia art collector.

November 12.—Edgar W. Mix, the American balloonist. . . . Charles A. Reed, the prominent New York architect, 54. . . . Rev. Dr. J. A. Carmichael, superintendent of the missionary board of the Presbyterian Church of Canada.

November 13.—Prof. Bernhard Frankel, the noted German throat specialist. . . . Ex-Congressman, Nehemiah Day Sperry, known as the "Father of the Rural Free Delivery system," 84.

November 16.—Bishop Alexander Mackay-Smith, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of Pennsylvania, 61. . . . Rear-Adm. John Yeatman Taylor, U. S. N., retired, a distinguished naval surgeon, 82.

November 17.—Dr. Eugene Wasdin, a widely known surgeon and yellow-fever expert, 42.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



"1912"

(Suggested by Napoleon's disastrous Russian campaign and his return from Moscow just one hundred years ago)
From the *Times* (New York)

PRESIDENT TAFT returned to Washington on November 12 after an eight weeks' trip of 15,000 miles around the country, during which he spoke in upwards of thirty States, to hundreds of audiences. It was the greatest "swing around the circle" any Presi-

dent has yet made. Mr. Taft was heartily pleased with the cordial receptions everywhere extended to him, and suffered in no degree from the hardship of continuous traveling.

There is much discussion regarding the



"AND EVERYWHERE THAT MARY WENT —"

(The cartoonist intimates that the Wool Veto, like Mary's little lamb, followed Mr. Taft everywhere throughout his long tour of the country)

From the *Journal* (Portland, Oregon)



WHAT CAN THE POOR MAN DO?

From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul)



RIGHT IN WASHINGTON, TOO!

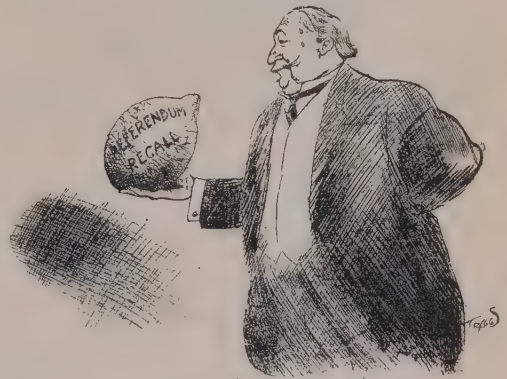
DEMOCRACY: "What's all that noise about?"
MOTHER G. O. P.: "Oh, nothing; just baby teething."

From the *Herald* (Washington)

insurgent movement and its effect on the Republican convention next year. The results of the recent elections seem to give little indication as to the course of political events in 1912. What attitude Ex-President Roosevelt will take in the national campaign is a matter of much interest, especially in view of his utterances last month on the subject of big business and government regulation.



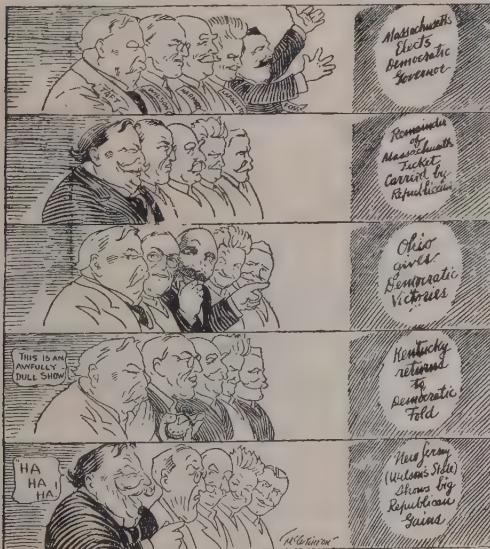
WHICH WILL THE TEDDY BEAR HELP?
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



A SOUVENIR OF CALIFORNIA

With abundant hospitality, the Californians kept the President's car loaded with native fruits and flowers. The juicy political lemon they have handed him, however, is not so easy to appreciate. (Just before the President's visit, California adopted the referendum, as well as the recall, applicable also to judges, which Mr. Taft does not favor)

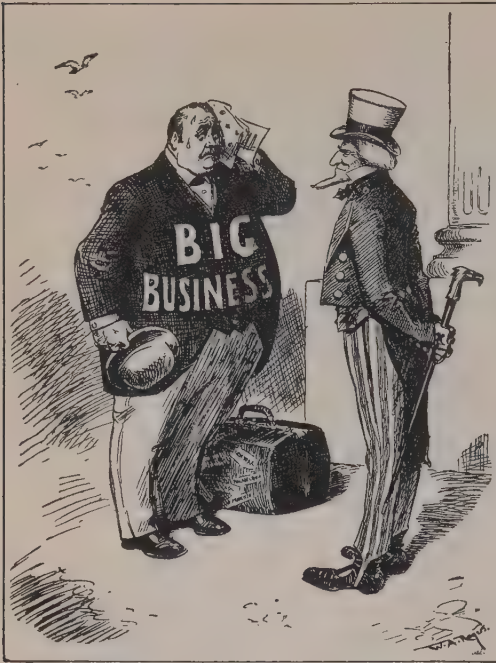
From the *Press* (New York)



GRAINS OF COMFORT FOR ALL
(Apropos of last month's election results)
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

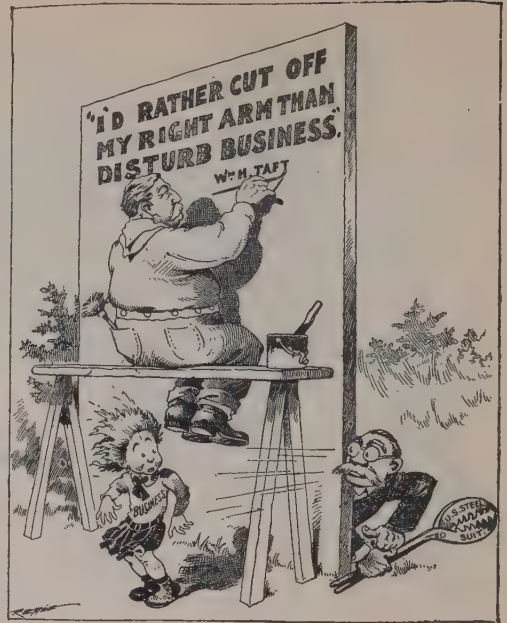


"THE FROST IS ON THE PUMPKIN,
THE CORN IS IN THE SHOCK"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



IF HE ONLY COULD BE SURE!

UNCLE SAM: "As my old friend Davy Crockett used to say, be sure you're right (obey the law) and then go ahead."
From the *Herald* (New York)



REALLY?

From the *Evening Mail* (New York)

The cartoons on this page deal with the present problems of "big business" and its regulation by the Federal Government. The *Herald* cartoon shows the perplexity of the large combination that really wishes to do business honestly, but, under the present conditions of federal legislation, is uncer-

tain what course to pursue. Mr. Taft is undoubtedly sincere in his desire to do nothing that would disturb business. The trouble seems to lie in the inadequacy of legislative measures for business regulation. The "unscrambling of the eggs" in the case of the Steel Corporation will be watched with a good deal of interest.



THAT AWKWARD MOMENT—

When the obliging spectator in the front seat gets his hat back

From the *Daily News* (Chicago)



SMOKING THE PIPE OF PEACE

(Will the new plan of dissolution prove a satisfactory smoke?)

From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



TWENTY-FIVE YEARS OF IMPRESSIVE CARTOONING

Johan Braakensiek, the famous cartoonist of the *Amsterdammer*, last month celebrated his twenty-fifth year in print. The accompanying cartoon shows this distinguished knight of the pencil displaying his collection of princes, potentates, and statesmen, whom he has during the past quarter-century held up to the gaze of the world.

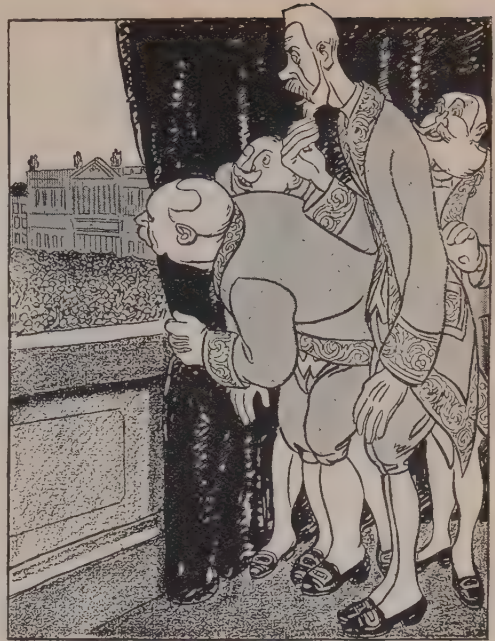
The Moroccan question continues to occupy the attention of European diplomats and to furnish a fertile topic for cartoonists.



FRANCE, TO GERMANY: "THERE, YOU HAVE IT"

(The Frenchman allows the Kaiser to put his hand over his, deluding the Kaiser into thinking he controls the situation)

From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)



A MISINTERPRETATION

"I believe the people are crying 'Morocco'"

"No, they are crying 'bread,' 'bread'"

From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart)

The figures in the foreground of the above cartoon represent Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg—the tall one—and former Colonial Minister Lindquist, who are apparently more concerned with the Moroccan question than with domestic troubles. The cartoon refers to the high-cost-of-living demonstrations in Germany.



SPANISH AMBITIONS IN MOROCCO

FRANCE: "Be careful, Alfonso; it is pretty hard, and your teeth might be broken"

From *La Silhouette* (Paris)



"THE HEATHEN CHINEE IS PECULIAR"

ITALIAN OFFICER (reading news from China): "A war with a battle! That looks like bad management"
From *Punch* (London)



A COLOSSAL AMBITION AT THE COLISEUM

KING HUMBERT OF ITALY: "Sempre avanti, Savoia! I will rehabilitate Imperial Rome"
(Apropos of the report that it is King Humbert's ambition to create a new great Roman Empire)
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)



LOCALIZING THE WAR

EUROPE, THE CIVILIZED (to the small Balkan States): "Be quiet, you little rascals; your big brother is going on a thieving expedition"

From *Der Floh* (Vienna)



IS AUSTRIA BACKING UP HER ALLY?

FRANZ-JOSEPH (to Italy, represented as the dog, who is reaching for the sausage Albania): "Be careful; you may be sausage yourself some day!" (*Wlochy* means Italy, and the cartoon refers to her suspected designs on Turkey's province of Albania)

From *Mucha* (Warsaw)

PIUS X AND HIS REIGN

BY ELBERT F. BALDWIN

PIUS X is already an historical figure.

This is true for two reasons: first, on account of his personality; secondly, on account of the conditions existing during his reign.

The Pope was born a peasant. His birth occurred in 1835 at a little town just under the Dolomitic Alps. He grew up in a region most favorably located as regards health. The southern slope of the Alps has developed a race combining the sturdiness of the Swiss with the grace and charm of the Italian.

Joseph Sarto—for such was his name—received some smattering of education, and then more than a smattering when the ecclesiastical authorities saw with what appealing whole-heartedness he was bent on fitting himself to become worthy to enter holy orders.

He became deacon, and a beloved deacon. He became priest and a beloved priest. Then he became Canon of Treviso Cathedral, then Superior of the Seminary at Treviso, then Bishop of Mantua, then Cardinal, then Patriarch of Venice. In each of these positions he was both popular and respected. It is easy to see why. He was a deeply sincere man. He was a very spiritual man. He expressed himself with straightforward simplicity. He had plenty of hard, common sense. He had the saving grace of humor.

He became Pope in 1903. Little did he think that he would succeed to the Papacy. But he did; and the reason why he did, according to a report universally believed and never denied, was because of the ancient right of veto, in the Conclave of Cardinals about to elect a Pope. This was the practice of announcing in the conclave that one of the Roman Catholic powers would object to the choice of a certain candidate. For centuries this privilege had been exercised by Spain, France, and Austria. When Pius X was elected, the chief candidate before the conclave was Cardinal Rampolla, Leo XIII's Secretary of State. But Austria did not like Rampolla. Hence the reported objection. But when Pius mounted the throne, he decreed that this veto power should end, and this act in the relations between church and state would make him an historical figure if he had done nothing else.

The present Pope may perhaps be best known because of his action with regard to the separation of church and state in France and Portugal and of the assertion of the state's semi-independence in Spain. The anti-ecclesiastical movements in these three countries did not fail to elicit Papal protests of a perfectly straightforward, strenuous, and uncompromising character. They seemed little in accord with the apparently more tolerant attitude which Leo XIII had displayed. But then Leo XIII had never been so sorely tried. The pity of it all is that now, as we judge of events after the lapse of time, those Papal thunders seem but the feeble and unavailing wails of a narrow-minded ecclesiastic—especially as guided by Cardinal Merry del Val, Secretary of State, a Spaniard and with some of those qualities which have characterized Spanish statesmanship in other ages. He and the Pope have been apparently incapable of appreciating the fact that, by following France's lead—as she tried to do as far as possible—the Church in Spain, as a spiritual power, stood to gain, not to lose; for, in France, the Roman Catholic Church of to-day, as a spiritual force, is stronger than before the separation of church and state. No longer does the state pay the clergy as it did under the Concordat; no longer has the state, in return for these payments, the right to nominate for ecclesiastical preferment; no longer has it the privilege of veto. As a result, the church may be measurably poorer in cash, but immeasurably richer in independence. For, at last, the Church in France pays its own clergy, and thus regains the right it never should have lost, to make a bishop out of any priest it chooses, untrammelled by the secular power. One would think that Pius X, a notably rugged, not to say obstinate character, in all that pertains to ecclesiastical independence, would have rejoiced at the church's opportunity of deliverance from the material bonds which have long manacled her to the state.

With regard to our own country, the fact should be chronicled that, under the present Pope, American Catholics are now to enjoy some approach to proportional representation in the College of Cardinals. This will doubtless constitute one of the important acts of

Pius X's reign—the appointment of Monsignor Diomede Falconio (an American citizen, though of Italian name), together with the Archbishops of New York and Boston, to the purple. These three, with Cardinal Gibbons, make four Americans in the College of Cardinals. Though many Americans would have been pleased to see such men as Archbishops Spalding, Keane, and Ireland included among those prelates to be advanced to the cardinalate, there is cause for congratulation that, at last, the position of influence occupied by America in the Roman Catholic Church is recognized, not only by reason of the quality of American Catholics, but, if for no other reason, because our country and its possessions include perhaps the largest number of Catholics in the world.

The issues of the recent Canadian election, as they affected the social relations of Roman Catholics and Protestants, have brought out in clear relief another act of Pius X, and one which has occasioned a good deal of comment among critics of the Pope's relation to affairs between church and state. That is the modification made by him four years ago in the marriage laws. The *Ne Temere* decree of 1907 aimed to put an end to clandestine marriages, and to those of an irregular nature, either because the contracting parties were unknown to the priest, or because of some possible misunderstanding on the part of the civil authorities. Pius X, therefore, very naturally decreed that, henceforth, at all Roman Catholic marriages, in order to assure validity, the officiating clergyman must be either the diocesan bishop or the parish priest of one of the contracting parties, or a clergyman expressly delegated by such bishop or parish priest. Illogically enough, Protestant resentment in the ultra-Protestant Province of Ontario, concerning this decree, was visited upon the political fortunes of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, then Premier, a Roman Catholic, and the one Canadian statesman of this latter day who is both a great leader at home, and who enjoys a great reputation abroad.

The most important of the other acts of Pius X with regard to the affairs of church and state relate to Italy. First of all, there is his action respecting Italian elections. He actually decreed that any Italian Roman Catholic might exercise the right of suffrage, that he might determine the character of the civil government. This evidence of liberalism was emphasized later by his encyclical addressed to the Bishops of Italy. His previous encyclical, the *Motu Proprio* of 1903, gave to

popular Christian action in politics "a fundamental ordering, which was to be, as it were, the practical rule of common effort, and the bond of unity and charity. Catholic works, then, various and multiple in form, but all equally intended to promote effectually the same social well-being, ought to be grouped together and consolidated where necessary for this most holy and most necessary purpose." Accordingly, in 1905, the Pope addressed the Bishops of Italy, not so much regarding political as social action of a common and united character. The Holy Father's aim was to produce coöperation among various works equally worthy of praise. In particular, he wanted to establish an institution of a general character, to be called the People's Association, intended to gather the faithful of all the social classes, but especially the great multitudes of the people, around a single common center of doctrine, propaganda, and social organization.

Such a People's Association would, His Holiness believed, at once win esteem, particularly as it would not disturb or hinder the work of any other institution, but would rather give strength and compactness to all institutions; indeed, it would stimulate individuals to enter particular institutions, would train them for practical and profitable work, and would unite the minds of all in the same sentiment and desire. As a preparation, the Pope highly praised the endeavors of the Opera dei Congressi Comitati Cattolici, which had already been actively operative in Italy, and called attention to the circular sent out the previous year by the presidents of the Opere Economiche. Approving these endeavors toward social and economic union, the Pope anxiously endeavored at that time, and is still even more anxiously endeavoring, to make any activities displayed by the faithful in preparing, by means of a good electoral organization, for the administrative life of the kingdom, also find their counterpart in proper social and economic activities, all to be regulated by the elevated principles to be found in the conscience of a genuine Catholic. "Every member of the church should strive in every circumstance to be, and to appear, truly Catholic, accepting public duties and performing them with the firm and constant resolve to promote with all his power the social and economic welfare of his country in accordance with the maxims of a distinctly Christian civilization, and at the same time to defend the supreme interests of the church."

But all these endeavors were hampered by



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POPE PIUS X

the problem of the "Prisoner of the Vatican," which prevented the Pope from going about among the people. When he was elected Pope the unsuspecting Cardinal Sarto had an unused return railway ticket to Venice. His personal influence as Pontiff—especially in the social and economic world as it may be affected by religion—would have been far greater if the outworn fiction that the Pope was a prisoner in the Vatican had not come to be an unshakable part of the Vatican policy. But the Roman Curia would not budge, and, night after night, it is said, the new Pope, heartily homesick, would take out that return ticket and gaze long and fondly at it.

The reign of Pius X, notable in its relations to church and state, is also notable in its relations to the church alone. First, regarding preferments. He had not long been Pope when those about him, interested in all sorts of ecclesiastical advancements, came to the conclusion that the simple peasant might be, after all, a shrewd peasant. The first tussle between what might be called the Vatican lobby and the new pontiff took place over the bishopric of Lucca. The Lucchesi and the lobbyists agreed that a certain nobleman, who had embraced holy orders, should be bishop. Nothing in their eyes could be more fitting. The Pope called them to him. "My children," he began, "you have tried to make me advance a patrician and not a plebeian to the episcopate. But I have done the latter thing. Do you not see that your course is only a way of saying that, if you had had your way I should not be Pope?" The lobbyists saw the point. They recognized that, after all, the new Pontiff was probably a stiff-necked mountaineer, and that he would have to have his way for a while. He has.

Again: Pius X had not long been Pope when he declared himself no reactionary, so far as the popular use of the Bible was concerned. Despite the standing charge of many Protestant bigots that the authorities of the Church of Rome would always oppose the reading of the Scriptures by the people, the translations and explanations of the Gospels in Italian, printed by the authority of the Saint Jerome Association, received the Pope's special approval. He declared:

Gladly do I give my blessing, and that with both hands and with a full heart; for I do not doubt that this work will produce the richest fruit, and is already blessed by God. The more we read the Gospels, the stronger our faith becomes. The Gospels are writings valuable for everybody, and under all circumstances. I have lived among the common people, and know what they want and

what pleases them. Tell them the simplest Bible stories, and you will have attentive listeners and effect blessed results. Your purpose is to spread the Gospel. You are doing a noble work. Some people think that the peasants, with their plain, everyday way of thinking, would not profit by the reading of the Scriptures. This is incorrect. The average peasant is a shrewder thinker than we may suspect and knows how to draw the correct lessons from the Scriptures often even better than many of the preachers.

Speaking of the Bible, another event in connection with Pius X's reign is assuredly that of the great revision. The revision, it is true, was started by Leo XIII, but the plan, as developed under his successor, had become more extensive than was generally anticipated. The purpose of the revision is to get back to the original Vulgate of Saint Jerome, that is to say, to eliminate the errors of copyists, and the interpolations of commentators—the dust and débris that always accumulate with age. Of necessity, the work will be published first in Latin, translations following. The manuscripts collated are reckoned at over twenty thousand.

A particularly gratifying event in Pius X's reign was his decree, addressed to the Bishops of Spain and South America, forbidding the sale of any privilege or dispensation by the bishops and clergy for any money consideration whatsoever, and especially abolishing the custom, which had prevailed for centuries, of furnishing the faithful with a special list of dispensations, absolving from sin, and known as the *Bulla Cruciatu*. As the name indicates, the "bull" arose during the Crusades, when the Popes were organizing expeditions against the Mohammedans, who were threatening to invade Europe. Funds were collected to finance these expeditions, and, to aid in the collection, a special list of dispensations was given to those who contributed sufficiently toward the expeditions against the Turks. After the Crusades ended with the battle of Lepanto (1571), the Popes sought to abolish the issuance of such dispensations. But the kings of Spain, and many of the bishops, resisted. The evil grew with the growth of the Spanish and Portuguese possessions in South America. Pius X ended it by a stroke of his pen.

But, unfortunately for his fame in history, Pius X's reactionary attitude toward Modernism may outweigh all his good deeds in purely spiritual matters. His ponderous pontifical pronouncements against Modernism were doubtless the lengthier and more frequent because the movement applied, not only to the interpretation of Scripture but to the dogmas of the church. Modernism, the nat-

ural result of the spiritual unrest of many intelligent Roman Catholics, simply means that there is in their minds no necessary opposition between religion and the most advanced learning, and that religion has nothing to fear from the truth, no matter what form it may take. Hence, Modernists warmly claimed, and claim, that even if they are in opposition to whatever party may control the Vatican, they are loyal to the church, as they conceive it to be.

When Professor Schell of the University of Würzburg tried to prove that Roman Catholic dogmas were as susceptible of progressive interpretations as are Protestant dogmas, his writings were placed on the Index Expurgatorius. When the Abbé Loisy in France attempted to show that "the world do move" as to Scripture interpretation, the Vatican declared his attitude heretical. When Antonio Fogazzaro, the greatest Italian novelist of our time, repeatedly endeavored in his romances to reconcile modern thought with fealty to the Pope, Pius X actually declined publicly to countenance the Fogazzaro novels. More particularly, the Pope condemned the philosophy of Immanence, one of the characteristics of Modernist theology, and decreed that the teaching of medieval scholastic philosophy should be obligatory in every Catholic university and seminary throughout the world, that all Modernist "suspects" should be rigorously excluded from the professorial staffs of these institutions; that the bishops should organize a boycott against the Modernist press; and, finally, that all professors in Roman Catholic institutions should take an anti-Modernist oath. These injunctions, but especially the last, have occasioned great confusion. The Pope's encyclical condemning Modernism answered no arguments. It simply said: Be silent! But any silence induced by it does not, of course, mean the end of Modernism. The church's attitude must change.

As to a personal impression, having seen both Leo XIII and Pius X, I would draw this distinction between the two—Leo XIII was perhaps the last distinctively temporal head of the Church; in comparison, Pius X is before everything its spiritual head.

Leo XIII had the face of a fox—a beautiful fox, it is true, but still a fox. A nonagenarian, the thin, fine, alabaster skin, tight over forehead and cheek bones, was the only sign of age. The firm, large, lovely mouth smiled

at you, and the lynx-like eyes looked through you with both sweetness and fire. For Leo was one of the notable characters, as well as one of the notable statesmen of our time. A patrician of bluest blood, he knew "both how to be abased" and "how to abound." In other words, Leo XIII was a natural diplomat; a sensitive man, of infinite kindness of heart, of sincerest tact, and never without a touch of humor.

When the visitor to the Vatican who had seen Leo XIII first faces Pius X, there comes the instant consciousness that the Pope is no longer a patrician but a plebeian. Yet the wistful, almost deprecatory, but certainly sympathetic face reveals not so much a peasant's expression as that of a man who, born a peasant, had had some experience with many social and ecclesiastical ranks—the experiences of one who cherishes no vain illusions as to men or measures, one who knows how far short both come of their profession.

But, chiefly, the Pope's is a religious faith. It reveals a childlike, probably a narrow, but surely an undying faith. The pomp of the Papacy is nothing to him. His mission as Pope is the same as was his priest's mission—not to make the church a greater militant power than ever, but to impart to those about him something of his own earnestness, fervor, conviction. This was the blessing felt by all who have seen him borne through the Vatican or St. Peter's as he continually raised his hand in Apostolic benediction.

To emphasize the essentially spiritual element of his mission, he deprecates any suggestion of material things—of the world. Hence, when he allows himself to be seen, he has printed cards handed about prohibiting applause. No longer do the Vatican and St. Peter's echo to the century-old cry, "*Viva il Papa-Re*." That, indeed, would have been an anachronism; for the Pope is no longer King. Yet was not even the cry to be heard, "*Viva il Papa*." Nevertheless, the silence seemed to me infinitely more impressive.

For in that silence one felt that a new epoch—our epoch—was being born, when, by the action of a truly spiritual though narrow-minded Pope, by the action of truly liberal and entirely spiritual Modernists, and by the action of certain states, no longer to be held in leash, the Roman Catholic Church is becoming freed from its ties to the state, and will, I believe, one day free itself from outworn dogma.

THE NEW AMERICAN CARDINALS

BY WALTER DWIGHT, S.J.

WHEN authentic dispatches brought word late in October that the Pope was soon to raise to the cardinalate, not merely one, but three American archbishops, the surprise and satisfaction were general. For it had long been felt that the Catholic Church's remarkable growth in this country, during the past twenty-five years, both in numbers and in prestige, had made it very fitting that Cardinal Gibbons should have several American associates in the Sacred College. The official Catholic Directory for 1911 credits the Church in the United States, including our insular possessions, with nearly twenty-five million Catholics, those in continental United States being governed and served by one apostolic delegate, a cardinal, thirteen archbishops, ninety-seven bishops and some seven thousand priests, while Catholic laymen figure largely in the nation's professional, civic and commercial life.

Great was the satisfaction therefore both within and without the Catholic fold when the news came that the Apostolic Delegate Monsignor Falconio of Washington, Archbishop Farley of New York and Archbishop O'Connell of Boston would be given the Cardinal's hat in a November consistory. Catholics rejoiced to see three of their most venerated prelates so highly honored, and those not of the faith were pleased to see this country represented so worthily and well in the Church's senate.

His Excellency Monsignor Diomede Falconio, the Apostolic Delegate, was born in the Abruzzi, Italy, in 1842, early in life entered the Franciscan order, came to the United States at the age of twenty, was ordained priest in 1866 in Buffalo, by the venerable Bishop Timon, and began at once to teach philosophy at St. Bonaventure's College, Allegany, New York. On being appointed president of that institution two years later, he took out naturalization papers and became an American citizen. In 1871 the future cardinal was summoned to Newfoundland to be administrator of the diocese of Harbor Grace, an office he held for ten years. On his return to Italy in 1883 he was elected provincial of the Abruzzi Franciscans, in 1889 was chosen procurator-general of his order, in 1892 consecrated bishop of Lacedonia, and three years later was made archbishop of Accerenza and Matera.

Leo XIII in 1899 appointed Monsignor Falconio first Apostolic Delegate to Canada, but three years afterward transferred him to a similar post in Washington, where he succeeded Cardinal Martinelli.

During the past nine years Monsignor Falconio has manifested, in the discharge of his difficult office, judicial wisdom of a high order. Hundreds of complicated cases that have been brought to his tribunal for adjustment were settled with such prudence that it is plain the Holy Father will find in him a counsellor who combines a thorough knowledge of conditions in America with an exceptional grasp of the theory and practice of canon law. His Excellency has already been informed that he is to reside in Rome hereafter, and that another prelate will be appointed to succeed him as Apostolic Delegate at Washington.

The Most Rev. John M. Farley, Archbishop of New York, who has also been raised to the cardinalate, was born in 1842 at Newtown Hamilton, County Armagh, Ireland. Coming as a boy to this country he made his college course under the Jesuits at St. John's College, Fordham. On deciding to be a priest, he entered the Seminary at Troy, and being afterward sent to the American College at Rome to finish his clerical studies was ordained in that city, June 11, 1870. The coming Cardinal began his priestly duties as a curate at New Brighton, Staten Island, but in 1872 he was appointed secretary to Archbishop McCloskey, an office he held for twelve years.

His advancement was steady. Made Vicar-General in 1891, domestic prelate of Pope Leo XIII in 1892, auxiliary bishop of New York in 1895, he finally succeeded Archbishop Corrigan in 1902 as ruler of the metropolitan see, the most important in the Western world, with its one thousand priests, its three hundred educational and charitable institutions, and its Catholic population of one and a quarter millions.

Archbishop Farley is a man of remarkable administrative ability. There is no field of Catholic activity that has not found in him an enthusiastic patron and promoter. Dear-



HIS EXCELLENCY ARCHBISHOP DIOMEDE FALCONIO

(The Apostolic Delegate at Washington, a naturalized American citizen who was elevated to the Cardinalate at the Consistory summoned to meet at Rome, November 27)

est to his Grace's heart is the cause of Catholic education. Until a parish school has been started he will not allow a church to be built, and highest in honor are those pastors whose schools are the best. While he has been archbishop works and enterprises as varied in their scope and character as the Cathedral College, "The Catholic Encyclopædia," the Staten Island House of Retreats and Social Studies, Mt. St. Vincent College for Women, "America," a Catholic review of the week, and the Fordham Law and Medical Schools have been inaugurated

and successfully maintained, and St. Patrick's Cathedral has been solemnly consecrated.

That Archbishop Farley is also an author of distinction is attested by his "Life of Cardinal McCloskey" and his "History of St. Patrick's Cathedral," while his opinion on public questions has generally contributed to the solution or clarifying of the point at issue. After receiving the red hat Cardinal Farley will continue of course to govern the archdiocese of New York, for unlike Archbishop Falconio he will not be a "cardinal in curia"—*i.e.*, residing in Rome.

The Most Rev. William H. O'Connell, Archbishop of Boston, the third American prelate now to be honored with the cardinalate, was born at Lowell, Massachusetts, in 1859. Graduating in 1881 from Boston College, an institution conducted by the Society of Jesus, he went to Rome for his theological studies and was ordained there in 1884. On his return to America Father O'Connell was occupied for ten years with parish work in Boston and its vicinity. In 1896 he was chosen rector of the American College at Rome, and was made a domestic prelate the year following. Under his guidance the seminary thrived and prospered.

In 1901 he was consecrated Bishop of Portland, Maine, and four years later was sent by Pius X as envoy extraordinary to the Mikado of Japan, with the hope of securing better opportunities there for the spread of Catholicism. Honored by the emperor with the grand cordon of the Order of the Treasury, he obtained valuable concessions that made it possible for the Jesuit Fathers to start a university in Tokio and for the Ladies of the Sacred Heart to open there a school for girls.

On Bishop O'Connell's return from Japan in 1906, the Pope made him Coadjutor Archbishop of Boston with right of succession. So after Archbishop Williams's death in 1907, the Most Reverend William H. O'Connell began to govern the metropolitan see of New England. The youngest of the new American cardinals, he has shown himself a zealous originator or furtherer of many educational and charitable enterprises in his large archdiocese of 900,000 Catholics. The Boston Cardinal is a forcible writer and eloquent speaker. A vigorous pastoral issued on "Modernism" and the address he delivered in 1908 on the hundredth anniversary of the founding of his see were particularly noteworthy. He, too, after receiving the red hat will return to his archdiocese.

The fourteen other churchmen whom the Pope on October 28 named as Cardinals with the three Americans are:

Archbishop José Maria Cos y Macho, of Valladolid, Spain, formerly Archbishop of Santiago de Cuba; Archbishop Antonio Vico, Nuncio in Spain; Archbishop Gennaro Granito di Belmonte, former Nuncio in Austria; Archbishop Francis Bourne, of Westminster; Archbishop Francis S. Bauer, of Olmütz, Austria; Archbishop Francis V. Dubillard, of Chambéry, France; Archbishop Francis X. Nagl, of Vienna; Archbishop Léon A. Amette, of Paris; Bishop Francis M.

A. Rovérié de Cabrières, of Montpellier, France; Monsignor Gaetano Bisleti, Papal Majordomo; Monsignor John Baptist Lugari, Assessor of the Holy Office; Monsignor Basil Pompili, Secretary of the Sacred Congregation of the Council; Father William Van Rossum, C.S.S.R., and Father Louis Billot, S.J.

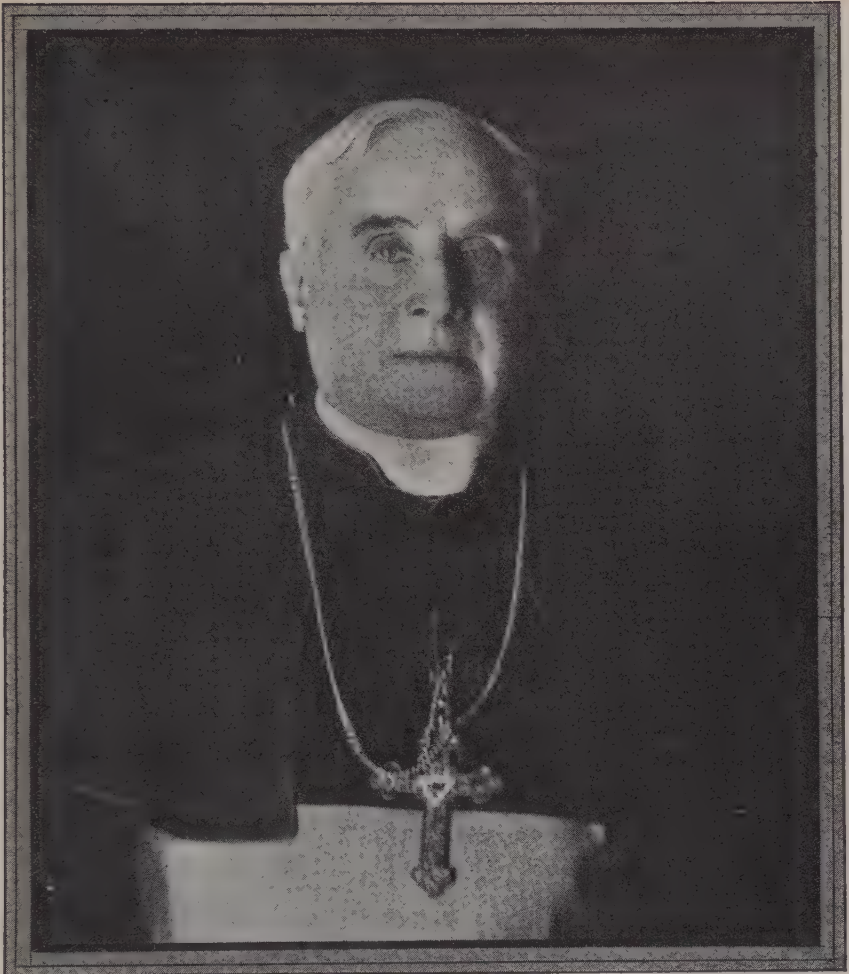
But what precisely is the cardinalate? What is its origin? What are the rights and duties of those who hold the honor?

In the early ages of the Church the term cardinal (from the Latin word, *cardo*, a hinge,) was given to the chief priest of any important church. In Rome, about the fifth century the name was applied to the archpriest of each of the twenty-five quasi-parishes of the Pope. These cardinals were entrusted with certain administrative and ecclesiastical functions of the Roman see. Since the days of Sixtus V, however, the number of cardinal priests has been set at fifty, each taking his title from a Roman church.

Besides cardinal priests there are cardinal deacons, who are also of early origin. Pope St. Clement, who flourished at the close of the first century, is said to have divided Rome into seven districts, in each of which a deacon had the duty of collecting the acts of the martyrs. These deacons subsequently became also supervisors of the papal charities, their number increased to eighteen and, like the cardinal priests, they were accustomed to assist the Pope at solemn functions. By a decree of Sixtus V, the number of cardinal deacons may not exceed fourteen.

The order of cardinal bishops, finally, who are the highest in rank, arose from a practice the early Popes had of calling in neighboring bishops to represent them at episcopal functions, to give counsel, and to assist them at synodal meetings. These cardinal bishops, till the twelfth century, numbered seven and came from various cathedral cities. But it was then settled by a papal decree that only the bishops of six sees in the immediate vicinity of Rome should always be cardinal bishops. Cardinals in foreign residence, like Archbishop Farley, it is worthy of note, are generally cardinal priests, while the fourteen cardinal deacons are cardinals "in curia," that is, attached to and employed at the papal court.

As for the duties of a modern cardinal, if he resides in Rome he graces the Pope's entourage, assists the Holy Father at great liturgical ceremonies, and is his official helper and counsellor in the government of the Church. In a consistory or assemblage of



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ARCHBISHOP FARLEY OF NEW YORK

(Made Cardinal at the Consistory of November 27)

the cardinals about the Pope, he may confer with them on such matters as the naming of new cardinals, the appointment of bishops, the conclusion of Concordats, the choice of nuncios, and like questions. But private consistories are not frequent nowadays, so a cardinal's chief share in the government of the Church is that of presiding over the various congregations which have been established for the dispatch of different kinds of ecclesiastical business. These courts, set up or remodeled by Pope Sixtus V, in the sixteenth century, were completely reorganized and adapted to modern conditions by the present Pontiff. Cardinals in Rome also attend of course public consistories at which the Pope confers red hats, brings to a conclusion a process of canonization, receives ambassadors, etc. But bishops and other prelates may assist at such consistories.

The cardinals' most important duty, however, is the election of a Bishop of Rome when the see is vacant. This duty belongs to them and to them alone. On the Holy Father's death a commission of four cardinals at once takes charge of all current business, summons from all parts of the world their brother cardinals to enter a conclave and proceed to an election. Though a cardinal is commonly chosen, there is no restriction on the electors. Any man who may be or become a bishop may be elected.

A cardinal's privileges are in keeping with his high position. He has a place and a vote in general councils, he is the only one to leave Rome as a legate *a latere*, he takes precedence of all other Church dignitaries but the Pope, in secular courts he ranks with princes of the blood royal, must always be addressed as "your Eminence," is robed in



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ARCHBISHOP O'CONNELL OF BOSTON

(Another American Prelate honored with the Cardinalate)

scarlet, has a sapphire in his ring, and wears a pectoral cross. Cardinals from religious orders, however, keep the color of their religious habit. So Cardinal Falconio will dress in Franciscan gray.

In the appointment of cardinals the Pope is free, though the Council of Trent decreed that all Christian nations should be represented in the Sacred College. As a rule, they are, but not necessarily in numbers proportioned to their Catholic population, for the Italian cardinals usually predominate. The full number of seventy is seldom complete. The seventeen cardinals just created

will bring the total membership of the Church's senate up to sixty-six.

The Sacred College as it stands to-day is unquestionably a remarkable body. It is the only kind of international parliament that is practicable. Though thoroughly aristocratic in its character, its ranks are recruited from all classes of society, and a man of the people by meriting the cardinalate can become the equal of princes. Indeed, repeatedly in the Church's history, holiness, scholarship, and administrative genius have won for their possessors the cardinal's hat and even the papal tiara.





IMMIGRANTS LEAVING THE CUSTOM-HOUSE AT NAPLES FOLLOWING THE EXAMINATION

(They are about to board the steamship anchored near by, by means of small steamers such as that shown at the gangway of the wharf)

THE EBB AND FLOW OF THE IMMIGRATION TIDE

BY HERBERT FRANCIS SHERWOOD

[Mr. Sherwood traveled in the dual capacity of journalist and student of immigration with the United States Immigration Commission when it visited Europe and has written numerous articles on various phases of the subject.—THE EDITOR.]

LITTLE attention has been given to the fact that, in the course of the year which is just closing, a marked change in the movement of immigration to this country occurred. It is only comparable in the recorded history of American immigration to the similar change which took place in the years 1907-8. There has been a great decrease in immigration coupled with an equally large increase in the number returning to Europe.

Between January 1 and September 30, 1911, only 450,670 persons landed on our shore from the third-class cabins of the transatlantic liners. While some ardent restrictionist might assert that this total was large enough, yet it was less than two-thirds the number who came to us in the same class in the course of the corresponding period of last year. The exact falling off was 278,424, or

38.18 per cent. Perhaps a knowledge of the fact that the number of those who sailed eastward in the steerage in the course of the nine months which closed on September 30 was 300,040, or 66.55 per cent. of the total of those who entered, and an increase over the number who went to Europe last year of 35.47 per cent., will cause our restrictionist friend to go to the length of throwing up his hat in his enthusiasm. The remarkable character of this change in ebb and flow is recognized when it is stated that the ebb in normal times has been found to average about 30 per cent. of the flow. This notable alteration in the currents of the "great human tide" is undoubtedly to be interpreted as an indication of a considerable reduction in the industrial activity of the country which, owing to a more centralized control and a more con-

servative attitude of capital, has not exhibited itself in a violent form, and, therefore, until recently has been little observed. Those who have comprised the bulk of the eastward flow, it is reported, have been "inside" men, that is, industrial workers. Early in September it was noted that "outside," or outdoor, laborers were joining the stream in larger proportion than is customary at that season. The conclusion is further emphasized by the marked reduction in the demand for labor in New York State shown recently in the returns made to the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Albany by the trade unions of the State. These indicated that during the first half of the year the percentage of idleness among their members was higher than at any time within recent years, with the exception of 1908, when the country was in the grip of a financial depression. The chief increases in unemployment were reported from the metal, building and transportation trades. These industries employ large numbers of alien laborers.

It is interesting to note in passing that in Canada, where aggressive emphasis is laid upon the need for agriculturists, farm laborers and domestic servants, and those of other occupations, are discouraged from immigrating, the disparity between the flow and ebb is greater than in the United States. The immi-

gration to the Dominion for the first nine months of this year, in contrast to that of this country, was greater than for the corresponding period of last year, but the ebb was only 18.12 per cent. of the flow. This, it will be recalled, is about 12 per cent. below the average for the United States. It, however, was 6 per cent. higher than that for the corresponding period of 1910.

Only recently has the ebb and flow of immigration been accepted as a register of the condition of the labor market in the United States, or has it been recognized as obedient to the law of supply and demand. We now realize that this country has tapped a supply of labor which is sufficiently automatic in the expansion and contraction of its current to meet the needs of a land subject to such fluctuating requirements as is our own.

Prior to 1907 there were practically no available official data upon which to base conclusions of this nature. Until that year no provision had been made by the Government for the collection of statistics showing the outward movement of aliens, although for a number of years steamship lines had been keeping records. The immigration law which authorized the appointment of the United States Immigration Commission directed the gathering of such data. About this time the steamship companies permitted

the publication of their figures, and those interested in the subject of immigration were surprised to learn that the east-bound movement of the immigrant class for ten years at least had approximated one-third that toward the west. In other words, there was a normal flow toward Europe of large volume. In the course of the Federal fiscal year of 1907-8, within which period the commercial and industrial activities of the country were suffering severely from a financial depression which has not been forgotten, the eastward movement more than doubled that reported for any previous year, while the westward was only three-fifths that of the preceding year. In fact, in the course of the calendar year of 1908, nearly twice as many left the country as entered it. This demonstrated



HOMeward-BOUND ITALIANS PLAYING GAMES ON THE FORWARD DECK OF THE "CANOPIC"

(They had prospered in the new land and were going back for a visit, having left their savings in America. Two of them expected to marry before returning. They did not know that they were being photographed)

the part played by labor conditions in American immigration. The knowledge we now have regarding the ebb of the immigrant tide has thrown fresh light on the whole subject.

Prior to the departure of the United States Immigration Commission on May 18, 1907, from Boston for the Mediterranean, no effort so far as known had been made to discover the reasons for the constant easterly flow. The first work undertaken was the gathering of data bearing on this phase of the subject from the company of aliens on the steamer on which it sailed. The results were enlightening.

On the *Canopic* were approximately three hundred third - class passengers of Portuguese, Italian and Greek birth returning to their native countries. Of the seventy-seven Portuguese bound for the evergreen slopes of the Azores eighteen said they were going back to the old home because of sickness. When the body gave out they desired to return to the familiar scenes of youth and to their own physicians. They wished to breathe again the air which had once fed their lungs. Only five expressed a dislike for the great land for which they had forsaken their queer boxlike homes on the isles of the Atlantic. Thirty-one were going to visit the old scenes, the wrinkled parents, and to get their families. Eight said they would not return to America. All of the others expected to do so.

With the exception of eight, the remainder of the third-class passengers were Italian. Fifty of these, whose vigor of body had been impaired in the new land while they gave it of their strength, were homeward bound in the hope of finding again the health they had lost. Thirty-five, or nearly 18 per cent. of the whole number, were sufferers from nostalgia and did not think they would go back to America. But 113, or approximately three-fifths, were expecting to return.

Of the eight Greeks, two were visiting their native hills because of illness. Four expected to stay in Greece and the remainder were intending to return to the United States.



"ONE SHALL BE TAKEN AND THE OTHER LEFT"

(The pair are a brother and sister at Naples. For some reason the latter had been rejected at the examination. She slipped through a hole in the fence surrounding the pier of the custom-house where the examination was held, and they are shown rearranging their baggage so that the brother may sail. They are unaware that the picture is being made)

Here were exhibited several deeply human reasons for the journey to Europe. As the writer, day after day, walked among the migrants, talking with them and occasionally visiting the ship's hospital with the doctor to see those who were ill, he could not fail to note the answers presented in this concrete form to some of the criticisms of immigration made by persons unfamiliar with the facts.

Not infrequently one hears the complaint that the taxes are increasing because of the necessity for building additions to the hospitals and insane asylums in order to accommodate foreigners. There is less ground for this murmuring than is generally realized. Doubtless, antagonistic feeling on this score would be modified if the extent was known of the desire of those of the so-called newer immigration to return home when ill. Who would not prefer home to a strange land when the body is ailing? The fact that sixty-eight, or more than one-fifth, of those on the *Canopic* were leaving America because they were sick, taken with corroborating facts gleaned elsewhere, indicates that a portion of the normal eastward movement is a self-elimination of the unfit from our working forces. Those who cannot meet the conditions of American life and climate, in a measure, efface them-



TWO PORTUGUESE GIRLS, NATIVES OF THE AZORES,
RETURNING HOME FOR A VISIT
(The younger, a nut-brown maid of ten, served the writer
very intelligently as his interpreter)

selves. Of those returning to recuperate, twelve were suffering from pulmonary ailments; some so ill that they were in the hospital. The ship's doctor stated that there were several cases of the disease on each eastward voyage. Endeavoring to subsist upon the diet they had been accustomed to at home and anxious to save money, they had had insufficient nourishment to meet the drain upon their stock of vitality under the labor conditions found in the United States. The winter cold and tenement-house life undoubtedly had also contributed.

To sum up, the steerage of the *Canopic* was a picture of the average immigrant quarters of a steamer bound toward the Continent in the spring of a normal year when the tide of aliens flowing westward is usually the stronger of the two currents.

Recent investigation serves to confirm the conclusions drawn from the statistics of the first definite piece of work done by the Commission. It also adds support to the statements regarding the relationship between immigration and the labor market. For the purposes of this article the third-class passengers of steamers sailing for different parts

of Europe in October were questioned as to their reasons for going home. On one steamer bound for a North Sea port nearly 400 passengers were interviewed, while on another information was secured from more than 100. On the former steamer 276 of those questioned were laborers, 37 skilled workers, 20 miners, and 18 of miscellaneous occupations. Of those willing to tell why they were going home, 104 stated that they were out of work, 22 that they were sick, and 41 that they were going for the purpose of visiting families, to marry and for other reasons of a social nature. Undoubtedly some of those who were sailing in order to make visits were doing so because they were unemployed. This statement would also apply to those who gave no reason. The races most largely represented were the Polish, Russian, Magyar, and the minor Slavic groups of Central and Southeastern Europe. Polish and Slovak laborers comprised by far the larger part of those on the other steamer from whom information was secured. This vessel was bound for a German port. Of the number, 14 declared their reason for leaving this country to be lack of employment; 10, sickness; and 59, to make visits.

The length of time these aliens had spent in America ranged from a few weeks to twenty-three years. One Magyar, a laborer, fifty-six years old, an inhabitant of New York City who had been here since 1896, was returning to the old country because of sickness. American taxpayers will not be called upon to support him in his old age, for he said he did not intend to return. One Pole, owing to the death of his wife, was taking his children home. He was refusing to ask this country to help him care for his family except as it gave him an opportunity for earning a living. He had been here only a year and expected to return to Boston, where he had worked as a laborer. Another Pole, fifty years of age, a laborer, had been injured at Niagara Falls. He was going home after working in this country for only a year. Another of his fellow passengers had also suffered from an accident and was on his way back to the Fatherland because of it.

While sickness and visiting contribute to the passenger lists of the third class, the chief factor in filling and emptying the cabins is clearly the state of our labor market. The mobility of the foreign labor supply when conditions become abnormal was demonstrated in connection with the financial storm of 1907. Apparently the disturbance resulting from Presidential elections is also reflected.

It may be recalled that the news of the election of Mr. Taft to the Presidency was followed by great popular demonstrations in some of the villages of southern Italy. The mayors of these communities were called upon to send congratulatory dispatches. The result of the election was interpreted as meaning an improvement in the demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labor. The foreign laborer, it would appear, has learned to look upon a Presidential year as one in which the demand for his services is likely to be curtailed, owing to unsettled industrial conditions. In those years he returns to his native land in greater numbers and furls the sails of his ambition until the rough weather of a national election has subsided. The number who returned to Europe in 1904, a Presidential year, was nearly one-half the total of those who came to this country, a phenomenal eastward movement. There is no means of determining the exact effect of the



ITALIANS HOMEWARD BOUND ON THE "CANOPIC"

election of 1908 upon the flow toward Europe, for the country was then suffering from the effects of the financial storm of 1907. The Italian immigrant has been inclined to be a Republican in attitude in national politics,

on the theory that there is a better demand for his labor when this party is in power and its policies in operation. Therefore, the news of Mr. Taft's election, following upon the depression of the previous year, was hailed with manifestations of great joy in the villages clustering about the crests of the hills of Calabria and Basilicata.

Even seasonal fluctuations in the demand for labor affect the alien movement across seas. In October, under normal conditions, the character of the passenger lists changes to some extent. Then the eastward flow grows in volume and is at its maximum for three months, while the westward decreases. Large numbers of laborers whose employment has ceased for the year



SIX POLES, ALL OF WHOM HAD BEEN IN THE UNITED STATES,
NOW EMPLOYED IN THE GALICIAN OIL WORKS

(The superintendent of the works said he preferred men who had been in America because they were quicker)

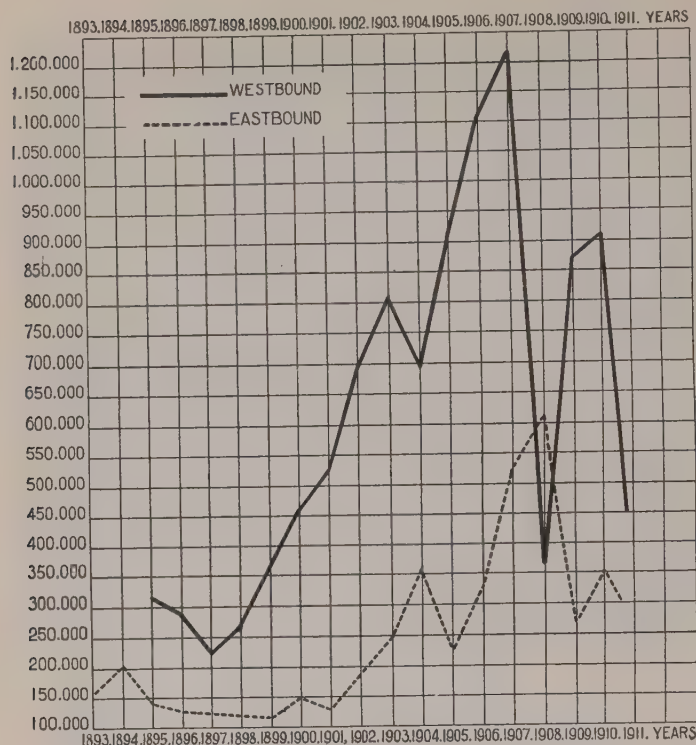


CHART SHOWING CHANGES IN THIRD-CLASS TRANS-ATLANTIC TRAVEL IN EACH DIRECTION

now take their way back home where the cost of living is lower and they may enjoy again the companionship of relatives and friends. The comfort of travel is so much greater than in the days of the earlier immigration that the incentive to return for the idle period is overpowering.

What is the subterranean means of communication which gives this international labor supply a sensitiveness to the requirements of this country so delicate that a reaction sets in before the press takes note of a new position of the pendulum? It is not difficult to explain how a slackness in the demand for labor may develop a reflux current. A man finds himself out of employment and the prospects for the immediate future not good in this respect. He becomes one of many similarly idle who are buying steamship tickets. The cause of a quick response in Europe to an altered condition here is not so evident. What diminishes or augments the flow according to the needs of the country?

When the Immigration Commission was in Europe, the chief officials of one of the latest of the steamship lines of southern Europe to enter the emigrant business—a line which recently had suffered a loss of thousands of dol-

lars through the imposition of fines at Ellis Island, and the expense of transporting back to Europe hundreds of rejected immigrants booked by its agents indiscriminately without regard to the limitations of the American laws—were anxious to obtain an official interpretation of the provision of the statute forbidding artificial stimulation of immigration. They had learned through bitter experience the necessity for obedience to the law and had no desire to come into fresh contact with it. They wished to know whether the letters written home by those already in America came within the purview of the statute. Their question proved that they had discerned the most powerful influence acting upon the flow of immigration.

The Commission, in an abstract of its report on immigration conditions in

Europe, recently made public, credits letter writing of aliens in the United States and the return of emigrants with being the most potent promoters of the present movement of population, the former being the more important of the two. "In fact," says the Commission, "it is entirely safe to assert that letters from persons who have emigrated to friends at home have been the immediate cause of by far the greater part of the remarkable movement from southern and eastern Europe to the United States during the past twenty-five years. There is hardly a village or community in southern Italy and Sicily that has not contributed a portion of its population to swell the tide of emigration to the United States, and the same is true of large areas of Austria, Hungary, Greece, Turkey, and the Balkan States. There is a tendency on the part of emigrants from these countries to retain an interest in the homeland, and in consequence a great amount of correspondence passes back and forth. It was frequently stated to members of the Commission that letters from persons who have emigrated to America were passed from hand to hand until most of the emigrants' friends and neighbors were acquainted with the contents."

In periods of industrial activity, as a rule,



JEWISH IMMIGRANTS ON THEIR WAY TO AMERICA

the letters so circulated contained optimistic references to wages and opportunities for employment in the United States. The reverse was true in times of industrial depression. This testimony is amply supported by the fact that nearly all European immigrants, when questioned on this point—as the law requires—say that they are going to join relatives or friends. Nearly 95 per cent. of those who came from Europe and Syria in the years 1908 and 1909 so declared, and it is noteworthy that the percentage from southern and eastern Europe was 97.

The fluidity of the supply of unskilled labor which has contributed so largely to the development of the resources of the country in the last decade, is a new characteristic in American immigration. The older immigration came to this country with the intention of remaining here permanently. Driven from the old home by economic and political conditions and drawn here by the opportunities presented in a country seeking development, it braved the horrors of the steerage of the last century with no expectation of returning. The new immigration, provided with conve-

nient and greatly improved means of transportation, has been attracted by the demand for muscle and a relatively low-priced labor, capable of keeping a practically automatic piece of machinery employed. By nature less cosmopolitan than his northern brother, more closely knit to his native soil, more provincial, the peasant emigrant of central and southern Europe, comprising a large proportion of the new immigration, is a migrant primarily because he hopes to benefit his condition at home through the exploitation of his personal physical resources for a year or two in another land. It is not his original purpose to expatriate himself.

Contrary to the belief of many Americans, the governments of the countries from which this newer immigration is coming are not promoting it. They are not striving to rid themselves of a surplus population. They would prefer to have their people remain at home. Emigration is costing these countries laborers and material for soldiers. It is drawing off their most ambitious and, therefore, most robust and industrious men. Were it not for the fact that freedom of



SLAVIC IMMIGRANTS BOARDING A TRAIN AT A "CONTROL" STATION ON THE GERMAN-RUSSIAN FRONTIER
(They are on their way to one of the North Sea ports)

movement is guaranteed in some of the countries from which there is a large outward flow, and may not be checked arbitrarily, it is probable that some governments would seek to reduce the emigration of their peasants. Even the restriction placed upon migration by Russia cannot arrest the current, although it may cut down in some degree the volume.

A by-product of this fluid international labor supply, which, indeed, is of far greater importance than the labor itself, is its social influence. It is, in fact, a missionary force comparable in its methods of action and power only to the great geological forces of nature. America, because of it, is learning lessons from the old world, and the peasant, at the bottom of the ladder, is being quickened socially and politically. More than \$275,000,000 of the earnings of immigrants, it is estimated by the Immigration Commission, was sent to Europe in 1907. The large sums of money sent home annually go into land and better homes, schools and clothing. The immigrant is quickened mentally by his contact with another civilization. Insensibly he discovers something of his rights and powers as a political unit. When he goes home he is prepared to ask as a right what once, if he

asked at all, he begged as a privilege. With the majesty and power of a mighty glacier, but more rapid in its action, the "great human tide" is planing off the social inequalities of Europe.

STATEMENT OF TRANSATLANTIC PASSENGER MOVEMENT

UNITED STATES PORTS

(Boston to Galveston, inclusive)

Total III Class Westbound	Calendar Year	Total III Class Eastbound
364,700*	1893	160,911
188,164*	1894	205,419
312,943	1895	148,484
298,446	1896	123,189
222,021	1897	123,222
254,336	1898	118,976
354,988	1899	113,857
458,934	1900	150,346
507,724	1901	137,532
697,741	1902	172,404
806,947	1903	245,527
696,740	1904	359,992
920,771	1905	232,432
1,109,526	1906	322,405
1,221,658	1907	527,881
354,183	1908	620,963
865,925	1909	267,445
904,183	1910	349,093
450,670	1911 to September 30	300,040

* Port of New York only.

CANADIAN PORTS

(Including Portland, Maine—the winter port of several Canadian lines)

III Class Westbound	Calendar Year	III Class Eastbound
....	1893	4,175
....	1894	4,980
15,303	1895	5,587
980	1896	4,571
18,264	1897	6,260
19,972	1898	5,540
33,923	1899	4,355
48,821	1900	5,974
41,802	1901	5,145
65,989	1902	6,158
87,979	1903	8,693
74,244	1904	14,271
89,575	1905	14,048
121,620	1906	18,963
164,649	1907	33,033
68,526	1908	40,961
89,735	1909	23,638
164,078	1910	34,266
152,979	1911 to September 30	27,721





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SAN FRANCISCO'S WATER FRONT, NEAR THE MAIL DOCKS

PREPARATIONS ON THE PACIFIC FOR PANAMA

WHAT THE BIG HARBORS ARE DOING

BY AGNES C. LAUT

IF you ask any one harbor on the Pacific what the other harbors are doing in preparation for the traffic expected on the opening of Panama, you will get answers something like these:

San Francisco will tell you that Los Angeles' new harbor at San Pedro is "a mud-pond" and "a duck pond"; and if you want the real thing, then look out on the harbor of the Golden Gate compared to the mess of bullfrogs and mud down at Los Angeles.

Los Angeles is dignified: also is cocksure of herself as only a city can be that has jumped as it were in a single night from 10,000 population to almost 400,000. She takes a clean sheet of paper and lays it along the Pacific Coast. "Now see for yourself," she says. "We don't try to persuade people. We let facts speak. Look at these lines! Traffic follows only two laws—least resistance and shortest distance. Now, which city on the Pacific Coast is nearest the great world-circuit route of steamers through Panama?

Follow with your eye these lines." Los Angeles draws a line up parallel with the backbone of the Rockies to Salt Lake and Butte and Helena, and from Montana back west to Seattle, and from Seattle, down at right angles back again to Los Angeles.

ADVANTAGES CLAIMED BY LOS ANGELES

"Now, look," says Los Angeles. "From Montana wheat fields to the Pacific Coast, a thousand miles! From Seattle down the Pacific Coast to Los Angeles another thousand miles (roughly speaking and in big round numbers, of course). But from Los Angeles—the hypotenuse of the triangle—up straight to the sheep and wool and wheat and lumber and beef country, the shortest distance to Panama by a thousand miles; and no high mountain passes to cross; and the haul all down hill"—and before you have listened five minutes, you are convinced that Los Angeles has all the other ports on the Pacific "beaten to a frazzle" as far as preparations



ONE OF THE WORLD'S GREAT NATURAL HARBORS,—THE BAY OF SAN FRANCISCO



THE SOUTHERN PACIFIC SLIP AT SAN PEDRO, THE PORT OF LOS ANGELES,—ONE OF THE GREATEST LUMBER-RECEIVING PORTS OF THE WORLD

for the traffic to come from Panama are concerned. To be sure, what San Francisco's jealousy calls "the mud-puddle" must be deepened and dredged and breakwatered and Old Neptune only knows what; but didn't the British deepen the Clyde from five to twenty-six, and twenty-six to St. George and St. Andrew only know what? And what man has done, man can do, and Los Angeles is going to do; and before you have left the City of the Mission of the Angels, you are converted and persuaded that demons can't wrest Panama traffic from the open and welcoming arms of San Pedro's long blue break-water line.

PORTLAND'S VAST RIVER TRAFFIC

The trouble is—like the groom who got himself converted to the Catholic faith for the sake of his prospective bride, while the bride for the sake of harmony had with equal alacrity got herself converted to the Protestant faith, so that they were no "forwarder" than when they began—the trouble is, when you go up to Portland and Tacoma and Seattle and Vancouver and Victoria and Prince Rupert, you get converted all over again; for each harbor has some advantage that beats the others out; and each in the fierce competition for the expected traffic plans some preparation to give her own port some unparalleled advantage over the rest of the Pacific.

Portland boasts a dozen things. Though she straddles the Willamette, she is on the direct route of the Columbia. The Celilo Canal will give fresh-water navigation up the Columbia for 400 miles right into the heart of Idaho. The Canadian Government had promised to improve Columbia navigation north of the international boundary. What does that mean? It means river navigation for 1500 miles. It means lumber and wheat and beef and fruit and wool drifting down the Columbia for transshipment at Portland to ocean liners belting the globe through Panama. It means that Portland will make a bid for the intermountain traffic of 300 square miles. As it is now, Portland is one of the largest grain shippers of the world. Also Portland is preparing the way for this river traffic by some municipal projects, such as a civic navigation company and a chamber of commerce stevedoring plan, which give promise of effectiveness.

SEATTLE'S FRESH-WATER HARBOR

Then, when you come on up to Seattle and Tacoma, you find the same bid for Panama traffic, the same keen preparation and determined hope. These twin ports point out to you that they are the termini for six great railroad systems; that they now have the Alaska trade, the fruit trade, the fishing trade, the lumber trade; that when the chan-



A LOG RAFT IN PORTLAND HARBOR

nel is completed into Lake Washington, Seattle will have the finest fresh-water harbor in the world—a harbor where either lumber floats or ships can moor without destruction to their wood from barnacles and torredos, which infest salt-water harbors.

CANADA'S RAILROAD TERMINALS

In Canada the Canadian Pacific Railway will tell you it has spent six millions lowering the grade of its roadbed to bring prairie and mountain freight down to the Pacific; while the Canada Northern will point to the great inland empire of British Columbia—which is a second Germany—rich in areas of fruit lands, of lumber, of minerals, which it will feed down the Pacific ports for shipment round the world by Panama.

Up at Prince Rupert, the northernmost transcontinental terminal, President Hayes of the Grand Trunk frankly avows that his line is preparing steamships and elevator capacity to ship 100,000,000 bushels of Canadian wheat a year round the world through Panama. "We have the lowest mountain grades in America," says the Grand Trunk,

which is true. "We have a sixty-foot harbor which nature made and which we don't need to dredge, and we have a sea-front which never freezes over as the wheat harbors of Eastern Canada freeze. We already have the finest Alaska steamers on the Pacific; and by the time Panama opens we'll have ocean freighters between Prince Rupert and Liverpool through the canal."

RAILROADS INCREASING THEIR DOCKAGE

Three or four of the railroads still belittle the probable effects of Panama and refer to it as a pond for "lily-pads." All the same—please to note and draw your inference—they have taken good care to buy, build and equip enormous new dockage facilities and slips clear from San Pedro to Seattle. They fought these new harbors, fought them furiously, from San Pedro and Oakland to Portland and Seattle. The story of that fight would make a serial in itself; just as the story of a campaign now advocating a flat tonnage toll of \$1.50 against all ships going through Panama would make another serial. These tactics recall yet another story of a gratuity of a mil-

lion a year to the little old Panama Railway to suppress its own traffic, or yet another of an agreement with South American steamships to keep south of Panama in all traffic rates, and the railroad would not interfere with South American traffic.

All the same, the very railroads that fought the new harbors and practiced these tactics are building magnificent new slips along the Pacific Coast. The very railroads that oppose tooth and nail Seattle's project for a fresh-water harbor, to-day control the best of Seattle's salt-water front.

SCORES OF MILLIONS FOR HARBOR IMPROVEMENTS

Though the railroads may belittle Panama, and the different harbors of the Pacific speak disparagingly of each other's preparation for the opening of the Canal, and though some soreheads will vow to you that this harbor improvement is all "hot air," the fact remains that there is not a port on the Pacific that is not undertaking on a gigantic scale preparations for the traffic expected from Panama. If you add up all that the federal Government is spending on jetties and breakwaters and dredging and canals, all that cities are spend-

ing through sale of bonds on harbor improvements, all that the railroads are putting into slips and terminals, the preparations for Panama on the Pacific will not fall far short of \$100,000,000.

Begin with Chile's expenditure of \$15,000,000 at Valparaiso. Skip all the minor cities between Valparaiso and Los Angeles—fifty of them there are with populations of from 5000 to 70,000—because the interests of these cities link more closely with the Tehuantepec route than with Panama. Los Angeles has spent \$3,000,000 on her harbor and has definitely planned the outlay of \$10,000,000 more. This does not include the federal expenditure of \$3,000,000, on the breakwater. Total, so far—\$31,000,000. Come on up to San Francisco and Oakland! San Francisco is now spending \$9,000,000, Oakland \$15,000,000. Your total now exceeds \$50,000,000.

Move up next to Portland, not forgetting the fact that dozens of little inland centers are planning relief from freight rates by spur lines to the sea. Celilo Canal has cost \$4,854,000 and will cost \$6,000,000 before completed. Add to that all that the federal Government has spent for the Columbia River jetty; and you have another \$9,000,-



MAP SHOWING SEATTLE'S FRESH-WATER HARBOR

(Lake Washington, with a frontage of twenty miles, connected with Puget Sound by canal)



ENTERING PORTLAND HARBOR

(The deep-sea channel from Portland to the Pacific will feed Panama traffic)

ooo. Whether this should be set down as preparation for Panama depends on the point of view; but certainly the work will contribute to Panama traffic. The deep-sea channel from Portland to the Pacific will also feed Panama traffic; and the deepening of that channel to date does not total less than \$6,000,000. The Cascade Canal is ordinarily set down at about \$3,800,000. Leaving out the Columbia jetty, Portland's total of preparation for sea traffic comes to \$15,000,000. To this must be added the \$2,500,000 bonds just voted for improvement of public docks. The sum total of preparation now exceeds \$70,000,000.

Seattle has just entered on her campaign of harbor preparation. General Chittenden has been elected Port Commissioner. Not considering the finest wharf on the Pacific, which the Grand Trunk now possesses at Seattle, or the terminal of the Hill lines, Seattle's great preparation consists of deepening the bay or arm of the sea up to Lake Washington, which will give a fresh-water harbor of unsoundable depth for a frontage of twenty miles. For the locks and masonry of this, Congress ap-

propriated \$2,275,000. In addition, bonds have been voted for harbor improvements to the extent of \$2,000,000. Your total is now nearly \$75,000,000.

Almost simultaneously with the announcement of the Grand Trunk that terminals were being prepared to ship Canada wheat by way of Panama, came the Canadian Pacific plans of lowering mountain grades by the great spiral tunnel at Mount Stephen, of elevator facilities at Vancouver, and dredging and filling in at Victoria. The cost of the total C. P. R. improvements to feed Pacific harbors has been given as between \$5,000,000 and \$6,000,000. Whether these may be counted as preparations for Panama remains to be seen. Certainly, the Grand Trunk docks at Seattle and Prince Rupert are avowedly for Panama traffic. What they cost the railroad has never announced. It must be noted that the sum total of preparation does not include Southern Pacific and Union Oil slips at San Pedro, Great Northern and Grand Trunk docks at Seattle, such civic projects as Los Angeles' municipal trackage to the sea-front, Portland's steamship venture and stevedoring

project; and it becomes apparent that the total preparation for Panama on the Pacific does not fall far short of \$100,000,000, or one-third the total cost of the Canal as originally estimated.

Hard-headed business men don't spend \$100,000,000 for nothing.

An expenditure of \$100,000,000 means expectations of \$100,000,000 return. Will it come; or are these Pacific Coast people indulging in a "wild cat" of the wildest kind? Look at the individual claims of each harbor! These claims must be set down as collective views. When totals reach \$100,000,000, the thing is an economic factor, and no longer the individual view of this or that person as to "lily-pads."

SAN DIEGO'S HOPES

Take San Diego first! Several hundred thousands have been spent on this harbor. A United States fort stands at the entrance. At time of writing, a bond scheme had come to grief through some legal hitch; but that will come later. The facts on which San Diego bases hopes are: *first*, it is the American port nearest the Canal route; *second*, it is the natural outlet for the Southern citrus belt, and as citrus shippers expect to cut the freight from 40 to 50 per cent., San Diego looks for new freighters; *third*, with the Panama Canal open, all Southern California looks forward to becoming a second Mediterranean pleasure resort; and for yachtsmen, a region more typical of the Riviera could not be found.

SAN PEDRO, THE HARBOR OF LOS ANGELES

When you come to Los Angeles, you are in a very hotbed of controversy. The railroads fought the development of San Pedro by every means in their power: but that fight is a thing of the past. The city has issued \$3,000,000 in bonds for municipal docks. Ten millions more are to be spent. The great scimiter-shaped breakwater protecting an outer area of 375 acres cost the United States Government another \$3,000,000. When the inner harbor is dredged, 200 more acres will be added to the sea-front. The next step is municipal trackage between Los Angeles and San Pedro for some twenty miles to secure shippers against railway charges. Two hundred more acres are being filled in at a cost of \$3,000,000 by private capital; and the Southern Pacific already has a slip 2000 feet long. The entrance to the harbor is 4000 feet wide with draught of from forty to sixty feet and neither rock nor sand. The federal government has approved of fortifications for Point Firman to cost \$3,000,000.

Already San Pedro is one of the largest lumber importers in the world; and the railroads feeding into the harbor tap an area of nine different States. As told before, Los Angeles calculates that her trunk lines bring the inland empire 1000 miles nearer Panama than the coast lines. But the great advantage claimed by Los Angeles is her nearness to the great world-path of Oriental trade. One other dream Los Angeles cherishes; and as the Pacific Coast has a way of making her dreams come true it may be set down here.



A NORWEGIAN STEAMSHIP UNLOADING JAPAN OAK AT THE DOCKS OF PORTLAND



PRINCE RUPERT HARBOR

(Canadian railroads will ship western freight through Panama)

She looks to the Orient. Here is a slumbering empire of 500,000,000 people just wakening to progress. Brown nakedness is donning Texas cotton. Will that cotton continue to be manufactured in the East? "Japanned" Korea, "Japanned" Manchuria, perhaps "Japanned" China are going to buy western sewing machines and harvesters and motor cars. Is all that machinery to be manufactured East or West? Los Angeles dreams and hopes and works out a destiny that discounts her own boomiest hopes. Any one who expects to see her "mud-puddle" grow a crop of deep bass bullfrogs is doomed to disappointment. If there are bullfrogs, they will be bullfrogs with a boom.

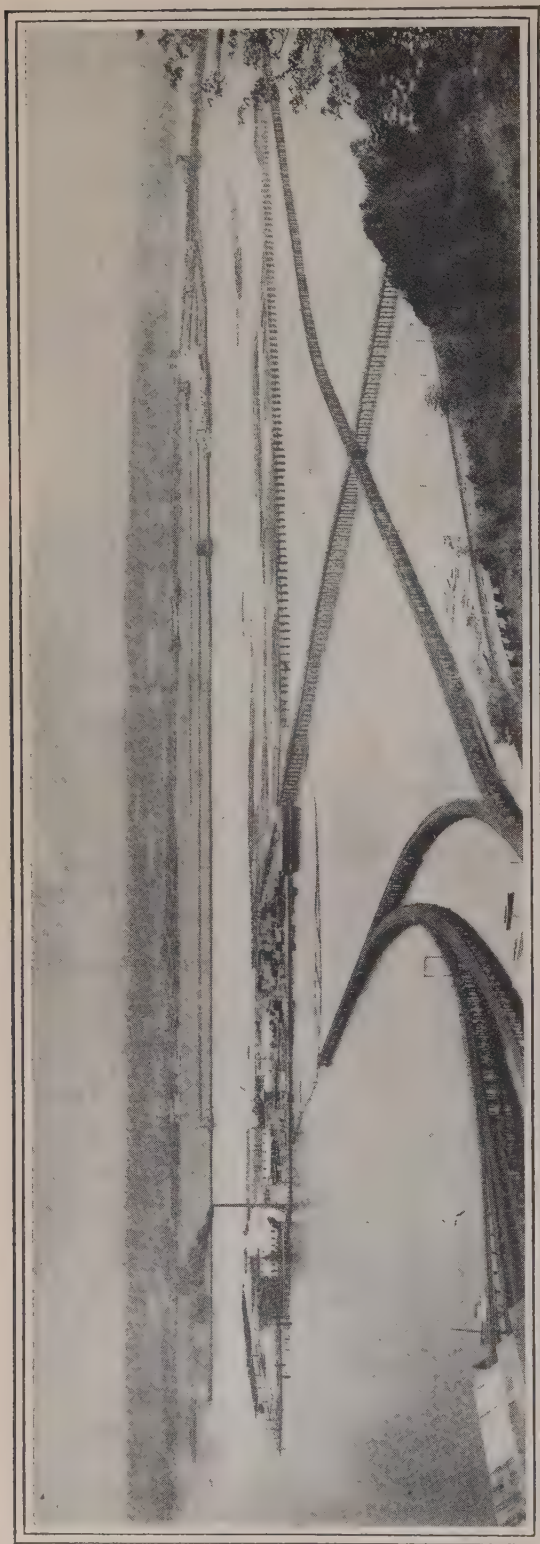
SAN FRANCISCO'S NATURAL PORT FACILITIES

When you come up to San Francisco and Oakland, you are dealing with harbors for which nature has done all that nature can do. There is no denying that the railroads long exercised a malign influence; but that era is past and need not be related here. For years, the Merchant's Exchange has contended that the first step towards freedom

from railroad dominance must be to divorce steamship and railroad business. The details of this you can find in the yearly report of the Merchant's Exchange and the Jobber's Unions. Meanwhile, Oakland is spending \$15,000,000 on her harbor, San Francisco \$9,000,000. Wooden slips and pilings are being replaced by concrete and steel. One concrete quay 3000 feet long is being built at Oakland. On this quay the United States Government has spent \$1,500,000, the city \$2,500,000. A fill-in is to give 300 more acres for warehouses and terminals. In spite of the railroads belittling Panama, the Southern Pacific is spending between \$4,000,000 and \$5,000,000 improving Oakland docks. When the harbor plans of both cities are carried out, Oakland will have twenty-six miles of water-front, San Francisco thirty-six miles.

THE QUESTION OF A MERCHANT MARINE

But perhaps the most interesting feature of preparation for Panama at San Francisco is the agitation for the revival of a merchant marine. The city does not attribute the decline of the marine solely to railroad in-



VIEW OF HARBOR ISLAND, SEATTLE

(The island comprises 400 acres and is bounded on the east by the East Waterway, on the west by the West Waterway, shown in the foreground, so made by the dredging of these channels leading to the mouth of the Duwamish River to the south. The Duwamish Waterway project, on which work is about to begin, and into which these two waterways lead, involves the deepening and straightening of this river channel for some miles through a low flat district that is ideal for shipping industries and terminal purposes. Harbor Island is being rapidly occupied by important industries)

fluence. Far stronger factors have been—*first*, the cost of labor and material in the United States being from 60 to 100 per cent. higher than abroad; *second*, the old United States navigation laws compelling the building and operating of United States coasters with United States labor and United States material. At least that is practically the working out of the laws which will not grant registry to vessels built or bought abroad and will not permit vessels to ply between United States ports which have been bought, built or manned abroad. San Francisco is asking for free trade on the sea, that her hands be untied, that the old navigation laws be repealed. She is also asking that purely American shipping be given free tolls through Panama. The latter request will probably have to be referred to The Hague Tribunal.

THE RATE SITUATION AT PORTLAND

When you come to Portland, you are at once involved in the intricacies of the Reno decision. As mentioned before, Portland is spending largely to feed Columbia River traffic through Panama; and Portland is already the largest wheat shipper on the Pacific. But to understand Portland's peculiar position, you must look at her place on the map; then consider the Reno rate case. Situated at the confluence of a river with 460 miles of inland navigation, Portland is practically able to tap 300 square miles at rates against which rail traffic cannot compete. That is why they call Portland "the off ox" among the Pacific ports. Now the Reno decision puts an end to discrimination against inland points compared to seaboard points.



ONE OF THE SEATTLE TERMINALS

(The Great Northern Dock, over which the Oriental traffic of the Great Northern Railway is handled, and which offers the terminal facilities for the Great Northern Steamship Company and the Nippon & Yusen Kaisha line (Japanese). The slip between this dock and the Great Northern elevator is 2200 feet long and 200 feet in width; the dock frontage on the slip is 1700 feet. The view shows the steamship *Minnesota*, and her sister ship the *Dakota*, prior to her loss in Oriental waters, gross tonnage 28,000 each, the two greatest freight carriers on the Pacific Ocean, and also a vessel of the Nippon & Yusen Kaisha, occupying one side of the wharf)

The rates must either be raised on the seaboard or lowered inland. As the seaboard freight is a mere bagatelle compared to inland, one can guess that the railroads will raise the seaboard rates rather than lower the inland; but as the Interstate Commerce Commission pointed out, this need work no hardship to cities with ocean-front "if they choose to avail themselves of it." In other words, seaboard traffic must take to the sea; and that is where river navigation gives Portland an advantage. In fact, if you investigate, to-day, tramp coal steamers taking out return cargoes of wheat from Columbia River give Portland an advantage over Seattle and Tacoma, which has been contested in commercial circles if not in courts of law.

THE NORTHERN PORTS AS PANAMA FEEDERS

Come up to Seattle and Tacoma and Vancouver and Victoria and Prince Rupert! The announcement of the Grand Trunk's intention to ship western freight through Panama is index enough as to what these ports expect. The three biggest Atlantic lines had representatives on the Pacific Coast last summer bespeaking piers and dockage at two of these northern ports. Seattle's perennial fight for a lower rail rate on lumber to the East will

solve itself through Panama. It would be a safe wager that Panama will settle this contention long before any decision from the courts. The fact that Seattle is now the terminal for six trunk lines gives some index of her possibilities as a feeder of freight through Panama.

The point now comes up—are these Pacific Coast ports launching on this enormous expenditure as "a wild cat" boom scheme? Are they doomed to disappointment, as not a few pessimists out on the spot predict? Was Panama ever designed as a freight route, or purely a strategic project in case of war? No one need assume the rôle of prophet. The unfolding of the next ten years will answer; but this fact is worth conning.

Twenty years ago, every Pacific Coast city hoped high, ridiculously, absurdly high. Think of sea hamlets of 10,000 expecting 100,000 population! Well, instead of having 100,000 as they hoped, they have to-day 200,000, 300,000, 500,000. It is the way the West has of out-Heroding its own expectations, and while the inevitable reaction from a boom is already hurting two out of the nine foremost Pacific Coast cities, still the reaction is but the backwash of the wave. The next wave is coming; and the Pacific Coast thinks the next wave is Panama.

THE AMERICAN ON GUARD IN CHINA

BY WILLIAM T. ELLIS

IN these critical times in China, when no man knows what a day may bring forth, who is America's man for the crisis? Is the acting official head of our legation a man for the emergency—such a one as will know best how to safeguard the lives and welfare of Americans in the imperilled points of the country; and such a one as will be likely to take the proper steps and preserve the proper attitude, should China's Armageddon befall?

The moment may be one for revealing semi-secrets, and for lifting the curtain that hangs before much diplomatic procedure. The reassuring truth is discovered that the very heart and brains of America's China policy is now on guard in the capital of that nation—Edward Thomas Williams, *chargé d'affaires* and secretary of the American Legation in Peking. Minister Calhoun is on leave in this country, in the interest of his office: for great issues are pending between the United States and China. Mr. Calhoun has proved himself a successful diplomat: I have personal knowledge that he is peculiarly popular with the Chinese officials; and he is as popular with the other legations as any new hand can be who is beating them all at their own game; and everybody knows his popularity with the administration. When it was found necessary for him to come to this country for conferences, the "China man" of the State Department, was sent to take charge in Peking. The plot was so rapidly thickening in the present Chinese drama that it had been found necessary to transfer the expert man behind the scenes from Washington to Peking.

There is no disrespect to ministers and ambassadors in saying that with them and behind them must always be specialists—men versed in the history and language of the country to which they are accredited, and, if possible, on familiar terms with the leading statesmen thereof. All of these conditions are met by Secretary Williams; and then some more. He is the great unknown in America's recent Far-Eastern policy. While he has probably never said so, it is common report in the inner circles of diplomacy that all the astute moves which have blocked Japan and Russia in Manchuria, have maintained the open-door policy of John Hay, and

have prevented the dismemberment of China, have been of Williams' devising.

That famous "four-nation loan," of fifty million dollars for the development of Manchuria and the reform of China's currency, which made some heathen rage, and started the uninformed to talk about the incursion of Wall Street into the Orient, was really the cleverest bit of diplomacy that the Far East has witnessed for a generation. Only one most intimately familiar with conditions in eastern Asia could have devised it: in finesse and far-reachingness it outmatched Oriental machinations. The world at large did not know that Japan and Russia had temporarily buried the hatchet and smoked a pipe of peace—which emitted a war cloud for China. Their program was to work their own will with Manchuria.

With subtle wisdom, the American State Department (Williams being Secretary Knox's right-hand adviser), kept creating occasions for Japan and Russia to assure the world that they meant to respect the open door, and China's sovereignty, in Manchuria. Observers called the Americans fools for believing these assurances, which were belied by the military, railway, and commercial activities of these two powers which old China dreads. But America was playing a deeper game than observers perceived. Suddenly, there came the announcement of this loan, which was, in effect, a message about as follows: "Of course we believe perfectly all the professions of our dear friends, Russia and Japan, concerning their respect for China's sovereignty over her Manchurian provinces. Firm in that belief, we have invited Britain, France, and Germany to co-operate with us in making a loan to China at this time, for the payment of which China has pledged the revenues of Manchuria for forty-five years. Naturally, this is a tacit agreement between the five nations concerned that China must rule Manchuria for this length of time. We are confident that Japan and Russia, zealous for China's sovereign rights, will rejoice in this step."

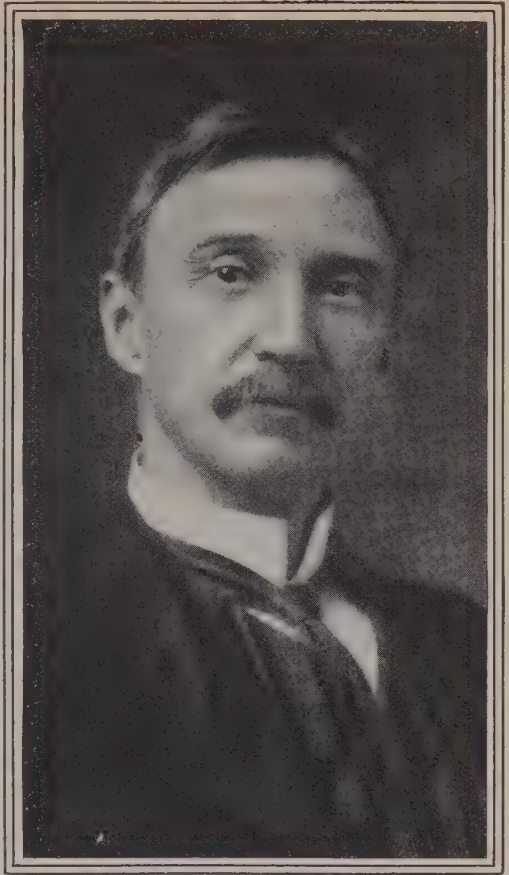
The howl that came from the Japanese and Russian press was not exactly a psalm of rejoicing. Publicly and officially, however, after a rather embarrassing delay, the two

governments gave their formal assent to this interpretation of the loan, their foreign offices meanwhile scratching their heads for ways of thwarting the game of these—umph!—blessed Yankees.

Thus to summarize this story is to tell more about E. T. Williams than to ransack the thesaurus for adjectives. His hand has been also in the big business of the remission of half the Boxer Indemnity, and the educating of Chinese students in America. Thanks to the type of diplomacy which he embodies, if he did not originate, the United States to-day has a standing in China which makes the other nations "eat bitterness," as the Chinese saying has it. And, if that policy is to be summarized in a phrase, it may be called the diplomacy of neighborliness—doing the other nation a good turn sheerly from the spirit of simple good will. It is the missionary motive in the dress clothes of statesmanship.

E. T. Williams used to be a missionary; that is how he got his perfect command of the Chinese language; for there are precious few foreigners, outside the mission body, who master this most difficult of tongues; probably it needs the grace of religion to support one through the ordeal! Dr. Tenney, the Chinese Secretary of the American Legation at Peking, is also an ex-missionary; as is also E. R. Miller, the present chief of the Far Eastern Bureau at Washington. Williams is Ohio born, and an M. A. from Bethany College, W. Va. He entered the ministry of the Disciples of Christ in 1875, preaching in Denver, Brooklyn, and Cincinnati for a dozen years. Then he went to China as a missionary, working there in this capacity, which brings a man closest to the people, from 1887 to 1896. Then he carried his knowledge of Chinese into the American consulate at Shanghai, where he acted as interpreter for two years. As translator to the Chinese Government at Shanghai, during the ensuing three years, he built up a wide acquaintance with the native gentry and officials, and a substantial foundation for his work as Chinese secretary of the American Legation in Peking, from 1901 to 1908. This post brought him into relationship with all of the leading Chinese, from the throne down, and his character, quiet, retiring, apt in courtesy, faithful in confidences and steadfast in friendship, won him the intimacy of many Chinese statesmen. He has been unofficial counsellor to many of them in trying times.

All these assets were placed loyally at the



EDWARD THOMAS WILLIAMS

(America's diplomatic representative at the Chinese capital)

service of the American Government. A passion for serving the two great nations of the East and the West, so unlike and yet so alike, may be found deep in the heart of this soft-spoken, unemotional man, who has been content to let others enjoy the limelight while he, in loyal coöperation with his chiefs, has quietly helped to bring things to pass. From Peking, after a short term in the important post at Tientsin as consul-general, he came to the newly organized Far Eastern Bureau of the State Department. Thus he knows the inner workings of the governments both in Washington and Peking.

He has unequalled affiliations with the Chinese in authority; and a close knowledge of the missionary body scattered throughout China. A better man to stand guard at this critical hour by the old flag under the shadow of the walls of Peking could not be made to order.



THE CHINESE EMPIRE—WHERE THE NEWEST WORLD REVOLUTION HAS TAKEN PLACE
(This map is reproduced from the *Illustrated London News*)

THE CHINESE REVOLT: A SURVEY

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE

THE Chinese are no longer "bats in the night of absolutism." On May 8, 1911, an Imperial edict was issued. On the front pages of the newspapers on the following day, the world read of the birth of the first responsible cabinet in all the 4116 years of the life of China. It was a great step forward toward the constitutional state which was promised in the now historic edict of September 1, 1906.

The first National Assembly of China, under the name of the Tsucheng-yuan, was convoked on October 3, 1910. It did not do much that year, but only awfully rash people would say that it did nothing in October, 1911. Provincial Assemblies have been doing more or less effective work in making known the wishes of the people since they were called into existence on October 14, 1909. A constitution and a parliament were promised the people by the Empress Dowager; they were to have these institutions in 1916. Prince Chun, the Regent, in answer to the unanimous resolution of the National Assembly on October 22, 1910, advanced the date to 1913. He did so, not because the Manchu throne wished to hurry the matter, nor yet because the Prince Regent thought that the people of China were ready for the coming of the representative form of government. He did so simply because the throne wished to show to the people that it is not indifferent to their wishes.

From time immemorial China has been governed by an autocrat. The Emperor is assumed to be the "Son of Heaven," with unlimited power. The laws of the empire are laid down in the *Ta-ch'ing-hui-tien*, or "Collected Regulations of the Ch'ing Dynasty," which prescribe the government of the state, and declared that it is to be based upon the government of the family. In practice, the autocratic power of the Emperor is manifested by decrees, edicts and rescripts, which, unless they are of a sacred nature, are published daily in the *Peking Gazette*, the oldest newspaper in the world. There are a number of advisory boards, chief of which is the Grand Council, up to the present consisting of six members. The actual administrative work of the country has been carried on by the eighteen boards, which are, in order of prece-

dence, those of Foreign Affairs, Commerce, Civil Office, Finance, Ceremonies, War, Laws, Communications, Interior, Education, Dependencies, Navy. The provinces are ruled by a vice-royal governor, who is responsible to the throne for the entire administration of his province. Each province is subdivided into prefectures, ruled by prefects, a collection of two or more of which, called a *Tao*, are ruled by a *Taotai*. Such was the governmental system of China when the revolution began.

The people of China have never played so active a rôle in the administration of state as they are now permitted to do—never since the days when their philosopher Motse preached what might be called agricultural socialism. Why, then, in the name of all the restless ghosts of their ancestors—why this Chinese revolution? What is the meaning of the uprising? What do the Chinese want?

They want more than one thing, and some of their wants are elemental, basic.

THE CRY OF THE EMPTY STOMACH

In the first place, they are empty of stomach; downright hungry, starved, and they want to eat. The many hundred millions of Chinese know that they have not squandered their gray lives in idleness. They have always worked in the past; they are willing to work; they do work. So they can not blame themselves. The soil on which they have worked and are working is mostly rich and kind. It is true that during this year and the few years past, great floods and drought have cursed the land. But then, had the people been permitted to receive something of a fair share of the fruit of their toil, they know,—beasts of burden as most of them are,—that they could have gotten along very nicely without troubling either the yamen or the altars of their gods and ancestors. They are starving to-day, they and their women and children. That is a fact as big and clear as the heaven above and the earth on which they stand.

Now why—why this state of affairs? They have not been as keen and as fiery as some other people in raising the question, it is true. But they have raised it now. They

have raised and answered it for some years past,—in fact, since the twenty-five-year reign of Kiaking, in the dying days of the eighteenth century. And here is the answer: The people are without food and raiment, because in the China of to-day, graft, which is a gentle art in the rest of the world, has added unto itself the rigorous, heartless, systematic exactingness of a science. It has donned the robe of the official, it has turned itself into a tradition; it has exalted itself into a veritable law, walking about in the white light of day, head up and unashamed.

GRAFT REDUCED TO A SCIENCE

The German managers of the Chinese mines at Wongchitong could deliver ore at the Hanyang Iron and Steel Works at one tael a ton, including all possible charges. The mandarin administrator of the mines charges three taels in his book. Lord Charles Beresford, who saw the proceeding, was not quite sure, in his polite mood, where on earth the two taels went. The people of China know. A number of factories in Hankow are financed and worked by the Chinese, but most of them are registered in the name of some foreign company. Why? "It is dread of official 'squeeze.'" What was the chief difficulty in building the Shanghai-Hangchow railroad? One of its directors told Professor Ross that it was the harassing "inspections" which obliged them to bribe the officials.

There are well-informed people in America and Europe who think that the mineral wealth of China is left untouched because of the lack of native talent to develop it. Still we are told that there are thirty millionaires in the Malay States, all Chinese, who got their wealth from the mining enterprises in Perak and elsewhere. It is the official "squeeze" at the throat of industrial China that gives you the one correct answer. "The Chinese are not victims of the rapacity of their rulers," a recent American writer on China declares; "for if their government does little for them, it exacts little: With four times our numbers the national budget is a fifth of ours." Ah, yes, if only even one-tenth of the blood squeezed out of the anæmic turnips of unhappy China were represented in the budget! Where, then, does the nine-tenths of the taxes collected from the people go? Into the same old places and to line the private pockets of highly honorable officials, from the princes under the very shadow of the throne to the petty gate-keepers of a provincial yamen.

Beyond a doubt the unspeakable condition of the Chinese of to-day has not come altogether from "the crowding of population upon the means of subsistence." China, to-day, is the clearest demonstration of what a government at once weak and corrupt can do to a great race and a great country. In Africa and in some of the islands of the South Seas you may be able to buy human life for money. But I honestly doubt whether it could be bought as easily as in China. A Taotai objected to the efforts of charitable people in fighting a plague because there were "too many Chinese anyway." And he was not put in an asylum; he was considered rather sensible. In what other country can you find the fight for life so strong that people can not afford a comfortable death by opium because the price of the drug has been raised, and now it costs a little over ten cents to get enough to commit suicide?

As you see, then, the present uprising in China is based upon the primitive desire of man for clearing away everything between his stomach and the food it so sorely needs.

Let me repeat that the Chinese are willing to work. They do work. The soil of their country gives them fair returns for their labor. With them every prospect pleases. Only the rottenness of official administration is vile. This brings us down to the second thing that the Chinese want.

HATRED OF THE MANCHU

They want to get rid of the Ta Tsing Dynasty now on the Peking throne. To add insult to injury, the present reigning house is not Chinese; it is Manchu. Naturally enough the real Chinese, the children of Han, as they are fond of calling themselves, do not wish to be under the yoke of a foreign conqueror. And such an unspeakable yoke it is! Moreover, the humiliation doesn't become a bit more bearable when the Chinese know, better than any one else, this fact, that there are not more than ten millions of Manchus all told to-day in the entire empire, and most of them are nothing but opium-smoking loafers who until very recently were supported by hereditary pensions from the Peking government—which they, the Chinese, have, of course, had to pay.

Then there is a new-born sentiment among the men of Young China. They call it Nationalism. It has been said often enough that the Chinaman does not know what patriotism means. This is an error. A Chinese, like a Japanese or an European,

has been evolved through his tribal, clan, and provincial affiliations, till he found himself a citizen of an empire. It came to him first in the days of the Shihwangti of Tsin (255-208 B.C.), who gathered the warring fragments of feudal China under one strong central government and founded the Chinese Empire and fenced it in with the Eternal Wall. The patriotic sentiment of Canton coolies and laundry men around the corner may not seem to support this statement. It is, nevertheless, an historic fact.

THE NEW NATIONALISM OF YOUNG CHINA

But the new Nationalism of Young China means something more than the love of the homeland which Shihwangti and his people knew. It is the awakening of a great race to the consciousness of a great heritage.

Despite the depth of mire and humiliation into which it has fallen, and in which it has slept its drugged sleep for well-nigh a hundred years, it is not in one or two spots only in the vast empire, this awakening. The new Nationalism surprises an English wanderer in the heart of Szechuan in the form of a "New China" student. A Chinese schoolboy in a back village in far Yunnan scribbles something in his copy-book. Evidently his idea is that Peking is entirely responsible for his slow progress in attaining light and learning,—an idea and expression quite enough to have his head cut off if read by a Manchu mandarin! It's practically universal, this new Nationalism of China, a little bitter, and a bit feverish and excited as it is very apt to be under the circumstances. And it is this that is hinting even to-day, to the Peking government, that the years it has seen on the throne since 1644 have been many—about enough, perhaps.

Here, then, we have at least two forces back of the uprising of the Chinese. His solicitude for his empty stomach and his love for the soil on which he lives. By far the most powerful drivers of human beings, these! Beside them, there are three other things which stand out head and shoulders above a thousand minor causes that had brought about the uprising:

From the days of the Opium War down to the occupation of the palaces of Peking's Forbidden City, foreign guns and foreign men have brought to light one thing—and they advertised it so dramatically, so convincingly that even it broke through the moss-back Chinese complacency;—that the Manchu government was bigger in pretensions than the people had any idea, and that in reality it was much weaker than they had

dared to dream. The Chinese-Japanese war told Europe of the rise of a new Asiatic power. To the Chinese, it told a much more poignant tale of the utter helplessness of the Tsin Dynasty. Autocracy without armed might is the most fecund mother of rebellion, as even a schoolboy knows.

The wholesale gifts of concessions for almost everything, for railroad construction, mining, and trade privileges, and the free-handed extravagance in throwing away territories big enough to make ten empires of the size of Japan by those world-famed world-wise patriots of China, who know what was good for their own pockets much better than all that academic twaddle about the thin and uncommercial thing called glory and honor of the country, added scandal to the ill-smelling advertisement of the decay of the Peking government.

REFORM PROGRAM OF EMPEROR KWANGHSU

The third cause,—the first in importance,—was the reform measures of the late Emperor Kwanghsu. Although Her Majesty, the late Empress Dowager, in her edict of March 14, 1889, bade farewell to her regency and handed the administration over to the young Emperor, and although it was in the latter part of the month of September, 1898, that the Empress rode out of the Iho Park and into the Forbidden City and made the Emperor a palace prisoner, nevertheless, Kwanghsu reigned—really reigned—for about half a year, up to September 20, 1898; actually for somewhat less than six months.

On June 11, the Emperor issued an edict. It was the first announcement of his reform measures. Two things which were closest to his heart, very naturally, came first of all—reform in the military and educational systems of the country. The edict ordered the establishment of a central university at Peking. The classic institution of "literary essays," as the basis for competitive examination for official honors, was abolished. His majesty ordered different types of schools established at all the important centers through all the provinces. Temples, moreover, were to be turned into school-rooms for the study of western arts and sciences. The dispatch of imperial commissioners to foreign countries for study; the opening of a way for direct petitions to the throne from the people, also for criticisms of administration; urging the speedy completion of the Peking-Hankow Railway; the adoption of the Western arms and drills for Tartar troops; the estab-

lishment of agricultural schools in all the provinces; the introduction of patent and copyright laws; the institution of special rewards for inventors and authors; ordering officials to assist trade and merchants; the establishment of school boards in provinces as a preliminary step for the inauguration of a compulsory system of education; freedom of the press; the establishment of naval academies and the building of training ships; of commercial bureaus for the encouragement of trade; the abolition of no less than six Government Boards at Peking (which made the huge number of official parasites to rush to the Empress Dowager at Iho Park and beg her to return to power and save them); granting to the people the right to memorialize the throne not only directly but also in sealed documents (an unheard-of innovation); the establishment of schools for sericulture and tea manufacturing; postal efficiency; the preparation of budgets after the western methods; these were the chief burden of his imperial message.

It was an ambitious program; even astounding, read in the light of what had been. Still it was an extraordinary day that the Emperor and his beloved China were facing. Kang Yuwei was his trusted adviser. It looked for a brief time as though the fondest dreams of the Young China were about to be translated into living, breathing, golden facts.

Many writers on China say that with the return of the Dowager Empress to the Forbidden City on that famous September night, in 1908, all the dreams of the young Emperor died. They are wrong, utterly. The influences which the young Emperor's edicts on the younger generation of the Chinese—on the Young China of which the unhappy Emperor and his friend Kang Yuwei were the leaders—have not yet been charted or told.

If only Yuan Shih Kai had not turned traitor to his imperial master's trust on that fateful day! If the young Emperor with his great dreams, with his heart on fire for China's glory that was in dust—if he had been allowed even five years of actual reign! If the entangling of Fate's loose strings had been a bit kind to His Majesty, who can say that the history of China might not have written the name of Kwanghsu even as the historian of the New Nippon writes the august name of Mutsuhito? There is a silly fashion among western writers to paint Emperor Kwanghsu as a weakling! What could be bolder than his dreams, even as they were dreamed in the purple twilight of the Forbidden City? It would be highly entertaining to see

what Herculean deeds of daring all these typewriter-banging and pencil-pushing critics of His Majesty would have done, had they been in the Emperor's shoes when the one trusted captain of his armed force, Yuan Shih Kai, betrayed him and went over with all his army to his enemy's camp; when he found himself a prisoner guarded by assassins! No progressive tendencies or labor on the part of Yuan since then can blot out his faithlessness. The years following the Empress Dowager's coup took it for granted that all the bitter toils of the young Emperor's ardent soul died out as the light in his then glassy eyes. Nothing of the sort was true, although none of the provisions of the edict, save that of the Peking University, were formally carried out. The pregnant edicts of the Emperor were more fruitful than the seeds of martyrs. To-day, they are the creed of the revolutionary movement and of the Young China. A rather striking picture, it may be added, that this young Manchu prince should have given the anti-dynastic uprising the cardinal articles of faith.

WHO ARE THE REVOLUTIONISTS?

The answer to the question—in a way—is simple and easy. They are the children of Han, the real Chinese, who dwell mostly in the Yangtse Valley and to the south of the river. Is it, then, true that the revolt at Hankow on the tenth of September, 1911, was backed by some three hundred million Chinese in all the southern provinces? Not quite, but very nearly so. For the uprising in China is distinctly of the people.

This same democratic note has marked the story of Chinese revolts since the days of the Taiping. Almost all their uprisings have been anti-dynastic. And from the Taiping to the Yunnan revolt of 1910, the leaders of the movements did not count for much. In most cases, the revolutionists did not have any leaders. The Taiping revolt was headed by an epileptic fanatic who thought himself, aye publicly called himself, the "Younger Brother of Jesus Christ," surrounded by a lot of disreputable adventurers at once as astute and superstitious as himself.

Even so it succeeded, succeeded enormously. It took sixteen out of the eighteen provinces of China proper and six hundred cities, according to the memorial of the famous Tseng Kuofan, who with "Chinese" Gordon suppressed it at last. Why? Certainly not because of the ability and worth of the leaders of the movement. It was

clearly because the people were but too eager to back almost anything; because they could not think of a worse state of affairs than those under the Manchu administration. The same was true of the Kwangsi disturbance of 1908 and of those in Yunnan. In April of last year a handful of unarmed and half-starved wretches took the capital of Hunan—the historic city of Changsha which, by the by, the Taiping in their boastful days found it so hard to conquer. There were thousands of provincial soldiers stationed at Changsha, then; and all they did was to run and not only run, but, in running, they were thoughtful enough to unbuckle their cartridge belts and drop their modern rifles so that the rebels could have proper weapons. The disturbance at Canton in February, 1910, was a repetition of the same melodrama.

There was one thing that was rather striking and quite new in the way the present revolt was inaugurated at Wuchang on September 10, 1911. Mark you, there was no rebel leader that led his devoted followers to the attack and capture of Wuchang. Thirty-two revolutionists were arrested in the capital city of Hupe; four of the number were beheaded in front of the viceroy's yamen. Then the troops rose and went over to the rebels. Did their general or their commander lead the soldiers when they joined the cause of the revolutionists? Not at all. General Li Yuanheng has been the acknowledged leader of the revolutionists at Wuchang. His letter to Admiral Sah tells how he came to be at the head of the uprising. It throws a light on the nature of the revolutionary movement at once picturesque, sensational, all illuminating. Remember he was the commanding officer of the Chinese Imperial forces stationed at Wuchang. When his men rose, the general says, he tried to escape. He was captured by his own men. Then they forced him to take the lead. He had no other choice. Since then, he has come to find out that the revolutionary party is of one mind from the lowest to the highest. He decided to share fortune with them because he thinks—and rightly, too,—that it is better to belong to a united party than to a disunited one.

The most serious feature—that is to say, the most dangerous element to the Peking government in the present uprising is the attitude of the fighting men of China to-day; the men, not the best soldiers in the world, as every one knows, still the best fighting material that China commands. In the Kwangsi revolt of August, 1908, 1000 soldiers mutinied

at Konghau and joined the rebels; in the Canton affair of February, 1910, no less than 6000 soldiers were reported to have joined the rebels. We have seen what the men of the Imperial army at the capital of Hunan did in the Changsha affair of April, 1910; at Chengtu, the capital of Szechuan, in September of this year, the soldiers refused to obey orders from the government officers, and while they did not take an active part in fighting Viceroy Chao, they certainly gave the revolutionists their moral support. In the present crisis, mutiny among the government forces is the nightmare to the imperial commanders.

The student class of Young China—more especially those who have studied abroad—is among the noisiest and most enthusiastic of the revolutionists. It is unwise to speak lightly of them. For out of this class will come many a Chinese Gambetta and Ito. They are the martyrs and apostles of the New China to come. At Tokyo, since the Chinese war, we have had from three to twenty thousand students every year at various schools. They have come and gone back to their homes in the eighteen provinces and practically every mother's son of them is a cheerful, reckless, vociferous, flaming torch for the revolutionary movement.

Add to the above list the countless unspeakables whom the two great commanders of mortals, Famine and Flood, have marshaled under the banner of discontent, and you have the personnel of the revolutionists in China in this year of grace, 1911.

THE STAGE-SETTING OF THE REVOLT

The tragedy is staged in Central China and the South. He who follows the greatest stream of the Asian continent, the Yangtse, along its 3200 miles of wandering through the heart of the empire, from "the Roof of the World" to the Pacific, will be rewarded with a glimpse of a valley as fertile as any in the world, covering the area of 650,000 square miles. One hundred and eighty odd million people live upon it. Ask any one the two questions: Where is the Garden of China? And where is her empire province? He will have but one answer for you—Szechuan. You can pick out a Szechuanese in a thousand by the way he dresses, so the Chinese will tell you. So rich is the province reputed to be among the Middle-Country men. And Szechuan covers the northeastern part of the valley. The Province of Hunan is in the center of it: "If only Hunan be fruitful," is

a saying so old that no one knows who said it first or when, "the Under-Heaven will be plentiful." And Changsha, the capital of this province, passed into the hands of the revolutionists on October 23. The city became famous in the days of the Taiping. The rebels besieged it for eighty days and failed to take it. From this city came Tseng Kuofan, who took Nanking from the rebels and ended the rebellion. And since his day the viceroyalty of Nanking has always been given to a Hunanese. In heathen China the memory of a great achievement is not forgotten as quickly as in civilized states.

"THE CHICAGO OF CHINA"

Wuchang, the present base of the revolutionary movement, is the capital of Hupeh. Together with the two other cities of Hankow and Hangyang, clustering there where the Han River pays her tributes to the Yangtse, the three cities form the Chicago of China. They are the distributing center for all the provinces of Central China. With its annual trade of about 130,000,000 taels, Hankow is only second to Shanghai; as the industrial and manufacturing center, the "congeries of cities" easily outranks any other in the empire. Hankow alone has more than forty factories built on modern lines.

HISTORIC NANKING

On lower Yangtse, the great cities of Kiukiang, Chinkiang, Suchau, Wuhu, and Nanking were reported on October 28, 1911, to be in open sympathy for the revolutionary control. Even Shanghai (captured by the rebels last month) was said to be hot with anti-dynastic sentiments. They are the trade and social centers of Anhwei, Kiangsu and Kiangsi. To the men of Chinese streets, Suchau has the only rival in Paradise and to the venerable Dr. Martin, she is "the Paris of the Far East." Nanking, whose name means

the southern capital, is the city of even greater historical prestige than its rival Peking, the northern capital. The Viceroy of Nanking is the immediate overlord of the three governors of Anhwei, of Kiangsu and of Kiangsi. Naturally he ranks among the most important officials in the empire. It was the capital of the empire in the soaring days of Chu Yuenchang, the founder of the Ming dynasty. Her glories, like the memories of her palaces and her wares, are largely of yesterday. Even so, there are about a quarter of a million people in the city, with its arsenal and military college. It was in this historic city that the first national exposition after western fashion was held. These three provinces under the Nanking viceroy at the lower reaches of the Yangtse cover over 162,890 square miles of area, supporting over 64 millions of people. And they seem a bit impatient for the coming of the victorious rebels. To the south, on the Pacific seaboard, Canton and Amoy are showing all the signs of restlessness as if they are afraid that some one might accuse them of the death of their time-honored anti-Manchu spirit. The remote hills of Yunnan and of Mohammedan Kiangsu, as well as the ancient capital city of the Manchu themselves in Manchuria, seem to be echoing the slogan raised by the Young China at Wuchang.

And what of the future? There are two paths before China. If the moderates win, then we shall see a constitutional state with parliament and a responsible cabinet. Both the constitution and the immediate convocation of the parliament after the British pattern, have been granted by the edict of October 30, 1911. And a mere band of 6000 soldiers at Lanchau will pass into history as the father of the first limited monarchy in China.

If they fail and the radicals win, why, then, we shall be treated to something really new under the sun—a republic on the classic soil of the most ancient of empires existent to-day.



CHINA AND THE CHINESE IN THE NEWEST BOOKS

PROFESSOR EDWARD A. ROSS went to China last year. He wished to study the life problems of that country at first hand. A dear "old China hand" was waiting for him at a treaty port: "I have been here thirty years," he told the professor, "and the longer I stay the less I understand the people." Before us is a 350-page answer¹ of the professor, which seems to convey a rather pointed hint that even so all-wise a person as an "old China hand" may, on the rarest occasion imaginable, go wrong a point or two. The author spent six months in China; traveled many thousand miles; saw many things—all of which is nothing. Thousands of globe-trotting gentlemen and gentler dames do precisely the same thing every blessed year. The mileage and the number of months have something to do with the righteousness and scholarship of a book which a traveler might forget himself so far as to write; but not much. The fact is, it's the eye that sees that counts. This author's was a "ranging eye"—to quote a part of the caption to the first chapter. It was a well-trained eye; it had taken more than ten times six months to train it. It was a specialist's eye, rather rich in professional curiosity,—which knew what it wished to see when it saw them—and with understanding. Naturally, it would have been very odd if the book before us were not a little different from the general run of travel books on China. Moreover, the author is happy in commanding a vivid, vigorous prose style. One can read Professor Ross' book, and with pleasure. It is not a surface photograph that we get from his inquiry after "the race fiber" and "the race mind" of the Chinese. He ranges wide, to be sure, from the "yellow peril" to the golden-lily foot-binding of the Chinese ladies, and missionary work and the new educational system introduced there. With all that, it would be difficult to conceive an abler statement on China's fight in behalf of her empty stomach than the fourth chapter of the book. There are a lot of things one might question, of course. On one page he is not as accurate as he might be; but, then, he himself gives us a much more correct statement on another page; so that the reader loses nothing—if he does not skip too much. The author doesn't take much stock on the pet superstition that the wall between the mind of the Orient and that of the West is impenetrable—certainly the most stupid of childish excuses for not reading a book in the East. Perhaps that accounts for the excellence of Professor Ross' work.

Many things are discussed in Mr. Goodrich's study of the present day China,² including "Possibility of Dynastic Change." The author culled a mass of information from a large number of sources and put them within the modest limit of less than 300 pages. He covers a tremendous range; "China for the Chinese" to "Japan's influence upon China," from "the possibilities of a

transformed China" to "the Duty of the United States toward China."

A WALKING TOUR IN CHINA

Some one has called Mr. Edward J. Dingle an explorer. He doesn't like it. He isn't an explorer, he says. He is nothing but a "journalist"—of a rather curious, and exploring type, it may be assumed, from the record of his trip in China.³ The story of a 1500-mile journey from Shanghai up the Yangtze to Chungkin, in the now very interesting province of Szechuan, has the honor of occupying some 47 pages of his 440-page book. This part of the journey was made mostly aboard a comfortable steamboat. It was easy; too frivolous for a record. But from Chungkin he walked, yes, walked, 1,600 miles through the provinces of Szechuan and Yunnan to the frontiers of British Burma. And that was quite a different affair from the everyday trip from Shanghai to Hankau. The author wished to see and study the life of the Chinese at close and intimate range, far from the contaminations and abominations of treaty ports. At a certain stage of his journey, he was much closer to the kingdom-to-come than to the frontier of Burma. In the end, however, he was rewarded for the wholesale sacrifice of comforts and the reckless risking of life itself. His pages fairly sparkle with all sorts of picturesque side lights on how the Chinese live and think in the heart of Yunnan. His studies of the revolutionary tendencies among the people in the far interior of the empire is especially interesting and illuminating at this time.

THE CHINESE PROVINCIAL CAPITALS

Quite another type of travel study of China is Mr. W. E. Geil's book⁴ on the eighteen provincial capitals of China. To the eighteen, he has added Peking and Nanking. He has tried to gather together all sorts of quaint traditions and quaint literature which cluster around the social and political centers of the eighteen provinces. Had he succeeded, he would have given us one of the most fascinating studies of China. From the standpoint of art and scholarship, the undertaking is a very ambitious one and as far as the present volume shows, a much bigger undertaking than the equipment of the author would justify. He has neither the pen of a Lafcadio Hearn nor the scholarship of a Dr. Legge, nor yet the quaint humor and sanity of judgment that is Dr. Arthur Smith's. And it would have taken all these to crown a work of this type with success. Moreover, the author's sympathy with men and things Chinese is distinctly alien. He is very far from being a Chinese at heart. His patronizing air in dealing with Chinese thoughts and dreams (which naturally he can not fully understand) is a choice bit of unconscious humor.

¹ The Changing Chinese. By Edward Alsworth Ross. Century Company. 350 pp., ill. \$2.40.

² The Coming China. By Joseph K. Goodrich. A. C. McClurg & Co. 298 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ Across China on Foot. By Edwin J. Dingle. Henry Holt & Co. 446 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴ Eighteen Capitals of China. By William Edgar Geil. J. B. Lippincott & Co. 400 pp., ill. \$5.

The translations of proverbs and phrases, furthermore, which the author gives on almost every other page, in the original, are rather inaccurate at times.

CHRISTIAN MISSIONS ANALYZED

It is a remarkable book,¹ on a Chinese appeal concerning Christian missions, which has been written by an observer who signs himself Lin Shao-Yang. It is astounding—amazing for scholarship, for the intimate knowledge of the critical school of Christian theology of the day as well as the inner workings of the church organizations, and for the skill with which the author handles his polemical weapons. His logic, his scholarship, his knowledge of Christianity in America and Europe in the opening years of the twentieth century—all these and the art of wordy fence he commands, are, however, all Occidental. The book is remarkable for the lack of Chinese and Oriental scholarship and viewpoint, as it is for the wealth of the Western. In the course of a single chapter, there are no fewer than thirty learned references in German, French, Latin as well as English. The author certainly refers to the *Hibbert Journal* oftener than to Shihking or Dhammapada. It will not do to say that there is no such Chinese scholar answering to the name of Lin Shao-Yang, but if he be in the flesh, he deserves a niche in the British Museum. The book is one of the ablest criticisms of Christianity, especially in its missionary activity in these latter days of ours.

EASTERN PHILOSOPHIES AND RELIGIONS

"The Religions and Philosophies of the East"² is a very big title. And Mr. J. M. Kennedy's book is a very small book. The kindest thing that can be said of it is that it is a convenient handbook. Not only is it almost humorously inadequate for the great title it bears, but it is not well balanced. "Indian philosophy—The Janis—China—Confucius, his system of morals—Lao Tze—Taoism—Mencius—Lack of poetry in China—Japan, its early religious system—Shintoism—Buddhism—Bushido—The Samurai,"—all these are treated in less than thirty pages of his small book; while to Mohammed and his religion he devotes nearly ninety pages. There is nothing original or striking in his presentation of the subject; nothing profound in scholarship or research.

EDUCATING THE MODERN CHINESE WOMAN

Miss Margaret E. Burton accompanied her father, Professor Burton of the University of Chicago, on his recent trip of investigation in China. She took a special interest in the education of Chinese women. She has gathered the result of her firsthand observations into a very readable book,³ indeed. The author does not confine herself to the story of mission schools. One can find in her book a concise history of the intellectual life of the

Chinese woman; and of the educational work for the girls of China since the day Miss Aldersey established her modest institution almost seventy years ago. She traces the development of the government schools, and her chapter on the relation of woman's education to the New China is full of somewhat startling news, I dare say, even to the well-informed readers of America and Europe who are thoroughly comfortable in the conviction that the Chinese woman is a sort of an animated doll plus an amiable slave of man.

THE GREAT EMPRESS DOWAGER AGAIN

It is more the history of China under the Empress Dowager than the life of Tze-hsi that Mr. Philip W. Sergeant has written.⁴ Mr. Sergeant was editor of the Hongkong *Daily Press* in those distressing days of the "Boxer" trouble, eleven years ago. As he says himself in the preface: "In those days, it was more usual to compare Her Imperial Majesty with Jezebel, Messalina and such pleasing characters,"—especially among the foreign residents in China. Since then, the pronouncement on the Dowager Empress' character has altered greatly—even among the foreigners in China. Still it must be admitted that a foreign writer finds it difficult to forget all the bitter thoughts against the anti-foreign uprising backed by her more or less active support. It is human nature so to do. Therefore, the portrait which the author gives us of the Empress Dowager is exceptionally just and fair, considering the circumstances. Mr. Sergeant's book has neither the intimate charm nor historic value of a few books which have already been published—Miss Carl's, or Mrs. Conger's "Letters from China," for examples. And it may be added that the Empress Dowager of the two American ladies' books is a much-truer portrait of Her Majesty than Mr. Sergeant's.

As a matter of fact, she was an amiable, clever woman, remarkably talented for a Manchu woman of her type, and a trifle spoilt, as any comely woman of her station is very apt to be, rather impulsive, fond of giving favors and not without a touch of vanity. One can find hundreds of Dowager Empresses on Fifth Avenue any day in the year. And her American or European doubles would do precisely the same sort of thing if they happened to be in the Forbidden City in 1900 and had fallen as ready and willing a victim to the wiles of Manchu princes and flatteries of eunuchs as was Her Majesty Tze-hsi.

An American journalist once asked the late Prince Ito what he thought of the Dowager Empress of China. The prince saw that his American visitor had the same fashionable idea of Her Majesty that was so common among the foreigners in the East. Therefore the Prince pointed at a *kakemono* on which were some Chinese idiographs: "Her Majesty wrote that and gave it to me," said he with a smile. "Look at the handwriting." Meaning, of course, that the mistress of those gentle strokes can never be classed with "Theodora, 'the arch fiend' of her own country's annals, Catherine de' Medici, etc." With all, Mr. Sergeant's book is valuable as a fair story of China in the days of her transition.

¹ A Chinese Appeal Concerning Christian Missions. By Lin Shao-Yang. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 321 pp., \$1.50.

² The Religions and Philosophies of the East. By J. M. Kennedy. John Lane Co. 276 pp., \$1.50.

³ The Education of Women in China. By Margaret E. Burton. Fleming H. Revell Co. 232 pp., ill. \$1.25.

⁴ The Great Empress Dowager of China. By Philip W. Sergeant. Dodd, Mead & Co. 344 pp., frontis. \$3.50.



THE WORLD MOVEMENT FOR WOMAN SUFFRAGE

BY IDA HUSTED HARPER

A FEW years ago no changes in the governments of the world would have seemed more improbable than a constitution for China, a republic in Portugal and a House of Lords in Great Britain without the power of veto, and yet all these momentous changes have taken place in less than two years. The underlying cause is unquestionably the strong spirit of unrest among the people of all nations having any degree of civilization, caused by their increasing freedom of speech and press, their larger intercourse through modern methods of travel and the sending of the youth to be educated in the most progressive countries.

It would be impossible for women not to be affected by this spirit of unrest, especially as they have made greater advance during the last few decades than any other class or body. There is none whose status has been so revolutionized in every respect during the last half century. As with men everywhere this discontent has manifested itself in political upheaval, so it is inevitable that it should be expressed by women in a demand for a voice in the government through which laws are made and administered.

In 1888, when Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, the leaders of this movement in the United States, where it began, attempted to coöperate with other countries, they found that in only one—Great Britain—had it taken organized shape. By 1902, however, it was possible to form an International Committee, in Washington, D. C., with representatives from five countries. Two years later, in Berlin, the International Woman Suffrage Alliance was formed with accredited delegates from organizations in nine countries. This Alliance held a congress in Stockholm during the past summer with delegates from national associations in twenty-four countries where the movement for the enfranchisement of women has taken definite, organized form.

THE UNITED STATES

At the November election, 1910, the men of Washington, by a vote of three to one,

enfranchised the women of that State. Eleven months later, in October, 1911, a majority of the voters conferred the suffrage on the 400,000 women of California. These two elections doubtless marked the turning point in this country. In 1890 Wyoming came into the Union with suffrage for women in its constitution after they had been voting in the Territory for twenty-one years. In 1893 the voters of Colorado, by a majority of 6347, gave full suffrage to women. In 1895 the men of Utah, where as a Territory women had voted seventeen years, by a vote of 28,618 ayes to 2687 noes, gave them this right in its constitution for Statehood. In 1896 Idaho, by a majority of 5844, fully enfranchised its women.

It was believed then that woman suffrage would soon be carried in all the Western States, but at this time there began a period of complete domination of politics by the commercial interests of the country, through whose influence the power of the party "machines" became absolute. Temperance, tariff reform, control of monopolies, all moral issues were relegated to the background and woman suffrage went with the rest. To the vast wave of "insurgency" against these conditions is due its victory in Washington and California. It seems impossible that Oregon, which is to pass on the question next year, will longer withhold the ballot from women. Kansas and Wisconsin also have submitted it to the election of 1912, with a good chance of success especially in the former. As many women are already fully enfranchised in this country as would be made voters by the suffrage bill now under consideration in Great Britain, so that American women taken as a whole cannot be put into a secondary position as regards political rights. While women householders in Great Britain and Ireland have the municipal franchise, a much larger number in this country have a partial suffrage—the municipal in Kansas; a vote on questions of special taxation, bonds, etc., in Louisiana, Iowa, Montana, Michigan and in the villages and many third-class cities in New York, and school suffrage in over half of the States.

GREAT BRITAIN

The situation in Great Britain is now at its most acute stage. There the question never goes to the voters but is decided by Parliament. Seven times a Woman Suffrage bill has passed its second reading in the House of Commons by a large majority, only to be refused a third and final reading by the Premier, who represents the ministry, technically known as the Government. In 1910 the bill received a majority of 110, larger than was secured even for the budget, the Government's chief measure. In 1911 the majority was 167, and again the last reading was refused. The vote was wholly non-partisan—145 Liberals, 53 Unionists, 31 Nationalists (Irish), 26 Labor members. Ninety town and county councils, including those of Manchester, Liverpool, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin and those of all the large cities sent petitions to Parliament to grant the final vote. The Lord Mayor of Dublin in his robes of state appeared before the House of Commons with the same plea, but the Liberal government was unmoved.

In the passing years petitions aggregating over four million signatures have been sent in. Just before the recent election the Conservative National Association presented one signed by 300,000 voters. In their processions and Hyde Park gatherings the women have made the largest political demonstrations in history. There have been more meetings held, more money raised and more workers enlisted than to obtain suffrage for the men of the entire world.

From the beginning the various associations have asked for the franchise on the same terms as granted to men, not all of whom can vote. For political reasons it seemed impossible to obtain this, and meanwhile the so-called "militant" movement was inaugurated by women outraged at the way the measure had been put aside for nearly forty years. The treatment of these women by the Government forms one of the blackest pages in English history, and the situation finally became so alarming that the Parliament was obliged to take action. A Conciliation Committee was formed of sixty members from all parties who prepared a bill that would enfranchise only women householders, those who already had possessed the municipal franchise since 1869. This does not mean property owners, but includes women who may pay rent for only one room. The associations accepted it partly because it recognized the principle

that sex should not disqualify, but principally because it was unquestionably all that they could get at present. This is the bill which has been denied a third reading for two years on the ground that it was not democratic enough! A careful canvass has shown that in the different parts of the United Kingdom from 80 to 90 per cent. of those whom it would enfranchise are wage- or salary-earning women, and not one Labor member of Parliament voted against it. Unable any longer to withstand the pressure Premier Asquith gave the pledge of the ministry that full facilities for the bill should be allowed at the next session of Parliament.

His sudden announcement on November 7, that the Government would bring in a Manhood Suffrage bill—one vote for every adult male but none for women—has altered the whole situation, and the struggle for the Conciliation bill will probably be changed to one for recognition of women in this new measure.

Women in England have been eligible for School Boards since 1870; have had the county franchise since 1888; have been eligible for parish and district councils and for various boards and commissions since 1894, and hundreds have served in the above offices. In 1907, as recommended in the address of King Edward, women were made eligible as mayors and county and city councillors, or aldermen. Three or four have been elected mayors, and women are now sitting on the councils of London, Manchester, and other cities. The municipal franchise was conferred on the women of Scotland in 1882, and of Ireland in 1898.

The Irishwomen's Franchise League demands that the proposed Home Rule bill shall give to the women of Ireland the same political rights as it gives to men. This demand is strongly supported by many of the Nationalist members of Parliament and some of the cabinet, and it is not impossible that after all these years of oppression the women of Ireland may be fully enfranchised before those of England, Scotland, and Wales.

In the Isle of Man women property owners have had the full suffrage since 1881, and women rate- or rent-payers, since 1892.

ENGLISH COLONIES

The Parliament of New Zealand gave school suffrage to women in 1877, municipal in 1886, and Parliamentary in 1893. It was the first country in the world to grant the complete universal franchise to women.

The six States of Australia had municipal suffrage for women from the early days of their self-government. South Australia gave them the right to vote for its State Parliament, or legislature, in 1894, and West Australia took similar action in 1899. The States federated in a Commonwealth in 1902 and almost the first act of its national Parliament was to give the suffrage for its members to all women and make them eligible to membership. New South Wales immediately conferred State suffrage on women, and was soon followed by Tasmania and Queensland. Victoria yielded in 1909. Women of Australia have now exactly the same franchise rights as men.

In all the provinces of Canada for the last twenty years widows and spinsters who are rate-payers or property owners have had the school or municipal suffrage, in some instances both, and in a few this right is given to married women. There has been some effort to have this extended to State and Federal suffrage, but with little force except in Toronto, where in 1909 a thousand women stormed the House of Parliament, with a petition signed by 100,000 names.

When the South African Union was formed its constitution took away from women tax-payers the fragmentary vote they possessed. Petitions to give them the complete suffrage, signed by 4000 men and women, were ignored. Franchise Leagues are working in Cape Colony, Natal, and the Transvaal, and their efforts are supported by General Botha, the premier; General Smuts, Minister of the Interior; Mr. Cronwright, husband of Olive Schreiner, and other members of Parliament, but the great preponderance of Boer women over English will prevent this English controlled body from enfranchising women in the near future.

There are cities in India where women property owners have a vote in municipal affairs.

SCANDINAVIA

The Parliament of Norway in 1901 granted municipal suffrage to all women who in the country districts pay taxes on an income of 300 crowns (about \$75), and in the cities on one of 400 crowns; and they were made eligible to serve on councils and grand and petit juries. After strenuous effort on the part of women the Parliament of 1907, by a vote of 96 to 23, conferred the complete franchise on all who possessed the municipal. This included about 300,000 of the half-million women. They were made eligible

for Parliament, and at the first election in 1909 one was elected as alternate or deputy, and last year took her seat with a most enthusiastic welcome from the other members. In 1910, by a vote of 71 to 10, the tax-paying qualification for the municipal vote was removed. In 1911, a bill to abolish it for the full suffrage was carried by a large majority in Parliament, but lacked five votes of the necessary two-thirds. It will pass next year. More than twice as many women as voted in 1907 went to the polls in 1910 at the municipal elections. Last year 178 women were elected to city councils, nine to that of Christiania. This year 210 were elected and 379 alternates to fill vacancies that may occur.

Sweden gave municipal suffrage to tax-paying widows and spinsters in 1862. At that time and for many years afterward not one-tenth of the men had a vote. Then came the rise of the Liberal party and the Social Democracy, and by 1909 the new Franchise law had been enacted, which immensely increased the number of men voters, extended the municipal suffrage to wives, greatly reduced the tax qualification, and made women eligible to all offices for which they could vote. At the last election 37 were elected to the councils of 34 towns, 11 in the five largest. The Woman Suffrage Association is said to be the best organized body in the country, its branches extending beyond the Arctic Circle. It has over 12,000 paid members and has held 1550 meetings within a year. In 1909 a bill to extend the full suffrage to women passed the Second Chamber of the Parliament unanimously, but was defeated by four to one in the First Chamber representing the aristocracy. This year the Suffrage Association made a strong campaign for the Liberal and Social Democratic parties, and a large majority of their candidates were elected. The Conservative cabinet was deposed and the King has called for a new election of the First Chamber. As its members are chosen by the Provincial Councils and those of the five largest cities, and women have a vote for these bodies and are members of them, they will greatly reduce the number of Conservative members of the Upper House. On the final passage of a suffrage bill the two chambers must vote jointly and it seems assured of a majority. It looks as if Sweden would be the next country to enfranchise women.

Denmark may claim this honor. Her Parliament in 1908 gave the municipal suffrage to women on the same terms as exer-

cised by men—that is, to all over 25 years of age who pay any taxes. Property owned by husband or wife or in common entitles each to a vote. At the first election 68 per cent. of all the enfranchised women in the country, and 70 per cent. in Copenhagen, voted. Seven were elected to the city council of 42 members and one was afterward appointed to fill a vacancy, and 127 were elected in other places. Women serve on all committees and are chairmen of important ones; two are city treasurers. There are two Suffrage Associations whose combined membership makes the organization of that country in proportion to population the largest of the kind in the world. They have 314 local branches and one of the associations has held 1100 meetings during the past year. The Lower House of Parliament has passed a bill to give women the complete franchise, which has not been acted on by the Upper House, composed mainly of the aristocracy. The Prime Minister and the Speakers of both houses are outspoken in advocacy of enfranchising women, but political considerations are holding it back. All say, however, that it will come in the near future.

Iceland, a dependency of Denmark, with its own Parliament, gave municipal suffrage in 1882 to all widows and spinsters who were householders or maintained a family, or were self-supporting. In 1902 it made these voters eligible to all municipal offices, and since then a fourth of the council members of Reykjavik, the capital, have been women. In 1909 this franchise was extended to all those who pay taxes. A petition signed by a large majority of all the women in Iceland asked for the complete suffrage, and during the present year the Parliament voted to give this to all women over 25 years old. It must be acted upon by a second Parliament, but its passage is assured, and Icelandic women will vote on the same terms as men in 1913.

RUSSIA AND HER DEPENDENCIES

First place must be given to the Grand Duchy of Finland, far more advanced than any other part of the empire. In 1905, by permission of the Czar, after a wonderful uprising of the people, they reorganized their Government and combined the four antiquated chambers of their Diet into one body. The next year, on demand of thousands of women expressed by petitions and public meetings, this new Parliament, almost without a dissenting voice, conferred the full suffrage on all women. Since that time from

16 to 25 have been elected to the different Parliaments by all the political parties.

In Russia women as well as men are struggling for political freedom. In many of the villages wives cast the votes for their husbands when the latter are away; women have some suffrage for the *zemstvos*, local governing bodies; the Duma has tried to enlarge their franchise rights, but at present these are submerged in the general chaos.

In Poland an active League for Woman's Rights is coöperating with the Democratic party of men.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY AND THE BALKANS

A very strong movement for woman suffrage is proceeding against great difficulties in the seventeen provinces of Austria, where almost as many languages are spoken and the bitterest racial feuds exist. Women are not allowed to form political associations or hold public meetings, but 4000 have paraded the streets of Vienna demanding the suffrage. In Bohemia since 1864 women have had a vote for members of the Diet and are eligible to sit in it. In all the municipalities outside of Prague and Liberic, women taxpayers and those of the learned professions may vote by proxy. Women belong to all the political parties except the Conservative and constitute 40 per cent. of the Agrarian party. They are well organized to secure the full suffrage and are holding hundreds of meetings and distributing thousands of pamphlets. In Bosnia and Herzegovina women property owners vote by proxy.

In Hungary the National Woman Suffrage Association includes many societies having other aims also, and it has branches in 87 towns and cities, combining all classes of women from the aristocracy to the peasants. Men are in a turmoil there to secure universal suffrage for themselves and women are with them in the thick of the fight. The International Woman Suffrage Alliance will meet in Budapest in 1913.

Bulgaria has a Woman Suffrage Association composed of 37 auxiliaries and it held 456 meetings during the past year.

In Servia women have a fragmentary local vote and are now organizing to claim the parliamentary franchise.

GERMANY

It was not until 1908 that the law was changed which forbade women to take part in political meetings, and since then the

Woman Suffrage Societies, which existed only in the Free Cities, have multiplied rapidly. Most of them are concentrating on the municipal franchise, which those of Prussia claim already belongs to them by an ancient law. In a number of the States women landowners have a proxy vote in communal matters, but have seldom availed themselves of it. In Silesia this year, to the amazement of everybody, 2000 exercised this privilege. The powerful Social Democratic party stands solidly for enfranchising women.

THE NETHERLANDS AND BELGIUM

A few years ago when the Liberal party was in power it prepared to revise the constitution and make woman suffrage one of its provisions. In 1907 the Conservatives carried the election and blocked all further progress. Two active Suffrage Associations approximate a membership of 8000, with nearly 200 branches, and are building up public sentiment.

Belgium in 1910 gave women a vote for members of the Board of Trade, an important tribunal, and made them eligible to serve on it. A Woman Suffrage Society is making considerable progress.

SWITZERLAND AND ITALY

Switzerland has had a Woman Suffrage Association only a few years. Geneva and Zurich in 1911 made women eligible to their boards of trade with a vote for its members, and Geneva gave them a vote in all matters connected with the State church.

Italy has a well-supported movement for woman suffrage, and a discussion in Parliament showed a strong sentiment in favor. Mayor Nathan, of Rome, is an outspoken advocate. In 1910 all women in trade were made voters for boards of trade.

FRANCE

The woman suffrage movement in France differs from that of most other countries in the number of prominent men in politics connected with it. President Fallières loses no opportunity to speak in favor and leading members of the ministry and the Parliament approve it. Committees have several times reported a bill, and that of M. Dussaussoy giving all women a vote for Municipal, District and General Councils was reported with full Parliamentary suffrage added. Last

year 163 members asked to have the bill taken up. Finally it was decided to have a committee investigate the practical working of woman suffrage in the countries where it existed. Its extensive and very favorable report has just been published, and the Woman Suffrage Association states that it expects early action by Parliament. More than one-third of the wage-earners of France are women, and these may vote for tribunes and chambers of commerce and boards of trade. They may be members of the last named and serve as judges.

PORTUGAL, SPAIN, AND OTHER COUNTRIES

The constitution of the new Republic of Portugal gave "universal" suffrage, and Dr. Beatrice Angelo applied for registration, which was refused. She carried her case to the courts, her demand was sustained and she cast her vote. It was too late for other women to register, but an organization of 1000 women was at once formed to secure definite action of Parliament, with the approval of President Braga and several members of his cabinet.

The Spanish Chamber has proposed to give women heads of families in the villages a vote for mayor and council.

A bill to give suffrage to women was recently introduced in the Parliament of Persia but was ruled out of order by the president because the Koran says women have no souls.

Siam has lately adopted a constitution which gives women a municipal vote.

The leaders of the revolution in China have promised suffrage for women if it is successful.

Several women voted in place of their husbands at the recent election in Mexico. Belize, the capital of British Honduras, has just given the right to women to vote for town council.

Throughout the entire world is an unmistakable tendency to accord women a voice in the government, and, strange to say, this is stronger in monarchies than in republics. In Europe the republics of France and Switzerland give almost no suffrage to women. Norway and Finland, where they have the complete franchise; Sweden, Denmark, Iceland, and Great Britain, where they have all but the parliamentary, and that close at hand, are monarchies. New Zealand and Australia, where women are fully enfranchised, are dependencies of a monarchical government.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

FRENCH RAILWAY DEVELOPMENT IN WEST AFRICA

PUBLIC attention has been attracted so strongly during the past few years by the Cape-to-Cairo railway project that railroad development in other parts of Africa has scarcely received the notice it has merited. France, for example, has been busy extending her railway mileage in western Africa; and on January 1 of this present year she opened the important line from the port of Konakry, the capital of French Guinea, to Kouroussa on the River Niger, about 365 miles. This region produces gum, millet, groundnuts, palm oil, palm kernels, rubber, and cattle, the last three of which items form the principal exports. The port of Konakry is visited regularly by French, English, and German steamers. The extraordinary success of the Konakry-Niger railway has led to the construction of a line from Kouroussa to Kankan on the Milo, a navigable affluent of the Niger. Kankan, formerly a village, has to-day 15,000 inhabitants, producing annually 10,000 tons of merchandise, which will now be carried by the new railway.

It is somewhat more than a quarter of a century since France inaugurated her railway system in western Africa. M. Alfred Guignard, from whose article in the *Revue de Paris* the foregoing data are taken, relates that in 1880 a proposal was made to the French Government for the construction in west Africa of three railways, namely: (1) One from Dakar to Saint-Louis. (2) From the preceding, a branch to Medina. (3) From Medina to the Niger; and in addition, certain works for the improvement of Senegal, to cost 16,231,600 francs. The total cost of the project, exceeding 120,000,000 francs, frightened the parliament, which authorized one line only, namely, that from Dakar to Saint-Louis, about 163 miles; and this was opened for traffic in 1886. From the first it was successful. To quote M. Guignard:

With no other terminus than Saint-Louis, which for five months in the year is but a cul-de-sac, the Dakar-Saint-Louis has "made good." Scarcely had the rails been laid in the desert than there sprang up important traffic in native travel. In one year, out of 100,877 passengers, the blacks numbered 93,113. . . . The facilities for transporting their products by rail had the effect of

attracting to the region a population of black peasants, and millet and especially groundnuts soon covered what had been an uncultivated area. The groundnut has enriched Lower Senegal, and in 1910 250,000 tons were produced, more than 160,000 tons of which were carried by rail to the port of embarkation. The revenue from this road reached 11.05 per cent. in 1910.

For a long time these successful conditions remained unique. With considerable trouble Admiral Cloué, Minister of Marine, had saved from the wreck of the projects of 1880 the authorization of a fragment of road from Medina to Bafoulabé, a distance of about 85 miles, for which a grant of 8,552,751 francs was made by the parliament in 1881. Yellow fever and many other misfortunes hindered the progress of the work, which, however, after many vicissitudes and tedious negotiations in the matter of subventions, was authorized to be extended to Koulikoro on the Niger. In addition to the branch from Medina to Kayes, about 85 miles, the total length of road from Kayes to Koulikoro was 349 miles, and the total cost reached 49,570,177 francs. The line, which included 550 bridges, was opened for traffic on December 10, 1904. Two trains weekly made the journey from Kayes to Koulikoro and return in three days, with nocturnal stops at stations provided with hotels. As in the case of the Dakar-Saint-Louis line, the Sudanese road quickly brought agricultural development into the region. M. Guignard gives an interesting account of his travel over the new line. He writes:

I had last visited this region in 1901. In 1910 I revisited it. The intensity of the agricultural movement had modified the aspect of the entire district. No more closed cities, "tatas," in which the natives were obliged to immerse themselves for safety. On the contrary, the country, formerly uncultivated, was now peopled; the length of the line were innumerable groups of huts, hamlets, and farms dotting immense fields. Centers of growing commerce were—Bamako, Kayes, Toukoto, and Mopti, the first-named the future capital and the last-mentioned the future metropolis of Nigerian rice. At Kayes the comfortable hotel which sheltered me might have shamed, with its neat and clean chambers and electric light, many of the French provincial hotels. Toukoto, which I had seen mere woodland, was now a town where I arrived in an express train rolling over a bridge 350 meters long. In the balcony of the hotel buffet I

recalled as in a dream the time, not so long ago, when I had crossed the ford of Toukoto on horseback at the rear of my file of porters. Thought I, "things were different"—but a magnificent lion, proceeding slowly to the river to drink, halted beneath my window and began to roar. . . . I was certainly in Africa.

The other railways in French West Africa, those of Dahomey and the Ivory Coast, are in an equally healthy condition; and, as M. Guignard observes, the remunerative operation of the French railways in Africa demonstrates conclusively their *raison d'être*.

THE DISMEMBERMENT OF FRENCH AFRICA: A FRENCH PROTEST

THE project of the French Government to cede to Germany the middle portion of French Congo has evoked a storm of protest. Writing in the *Economiste Français*, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the editor-in-chief of that paper, claims that "an immense majority of Frenchmen are opposed to this disastrous scheme"; and, as typical of the general sentiment, he cites the following passage from an article by M. Francis Charmes, formerly political director in the French ministry of foreign affairs:

Public opinion will not accept without the deepest regret, when its importance is realized, the territorial cession to which we have consented. Congo and Gabun appeal to our imagination: we have made great sacrifices there; our explorers and our soldiers have there displayed an admirable intelligence and a heroism more admirable still. Following them, our administrators have there developed colonies evidently very desirable, since Germany desires so eagerly to acquire them. But what have the Germans done to obtain them? Nothing. They have not expended a man, a crown, or an atom of colonial ability. Their whole policy consists in profiting by the work of others, without giving themselves the trouble of acquiring any right. The sole title that they invoke is that they can cause us trouble elsewhere, and that henceforward they will refrain from doing so. . . . Need we repeat? Our future situation in Morocco will be such, even if we content ourselves with establishing economic equality there, that our extreme generosity will deserve perhaps another name in history. We shall have worked for everybody—doubtless a grand rôle, but a profitless one.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu charges the French Government with injuring the nation and with deeply wounding the national sentiment as well. And as "the work of dismembering French Africa is not yet consummated, it should be vigorously opposed and its completion prevented. Before the almost universal reprobation which the project has evoked in France, it is a supreme duty to modify it. Above all, it is absolutely necessary that the unity and continuity of the French African empire be maintained: it must not be reduced to scattered fragments."

Germany, it is said, desires direct access to the River Congo; but this fact is not a suffi-

cient ground for granting the concession, if France's vital interests are threatened thereby. M. Leroy-Beaulieu is of opinion, however, that a *modus vivendi* might be found in following the precedent created when England conceded, under somewhat similar circumstances, Forcados to France. By arresting at the middle of the Sanga River her cession of territory to Germany, France could allow to the latter, at the confluence of the Sanga and the Congo and at another point on the Congo, two ports analogous to that of Forcados on the Niger, granted by England to France. Germany would thus gain direct access to the River Congo, and the French empire in Africa would not be dismembered.

Alluding to certain other proposed concessions by France to Germany—*e. g.*, in regard to the transport of minerals from Morocco—M. Leroy-Beaulieu sees no objection to them, provided that Germany on her part is willing to renounce her claims to the banks of the Congo. France can, moreover, advance arguments which should have weight with Germany. The latter country may have need of the good offices of France in connection with the institution by Turkey of a surtax on the customs to aid in expediting the construction of the Bagdad railway, the early completion of which Germany desires to see. If France is expected and is willing to extend a courtesy to Germany in this case, Germany should be willing to reciprocate in regard to Congo.

Minister Caillaux is earnestly implored to modify the Congo cession project. Says M. Leroy-Beaulieu:

If he [Caillaux] actually cedes to Germany the northern bank of the Congo, and blocks the junction between the Gabun and the French territories in interior Africa, he will incur a justifiable unpopularity. For ourselves, we entreat the parliament to reject a treaty of this nature. Should the parliament, contrary to our judgment and our hope, adopt it, the nation will never pardon the minister who would dismember our African empire. His days would be numbered, and he would soon fall under public reprobation.

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM IN FRANCE

CAN legislative power be limited in France? M. Gustave Aron, a political economist of some fame, thinks it ought to be. In two recent numbers of the *Grande Revue* he discusses the pros and cons of this subject.

The parliamentary régime in France, he says, is passing through a crisis the importance and the gravity of which it would be puerile to deny.

There seems to be a sudden desire to upset and change everything, for it is not merely parliamentary practices, but reform of the administrative and the financial organization, which is aimed at. What has brought about the present crisis is not so much the political *malaise* as the economic uneasiness underlying it. The new taxation with which capitalists are threatened, the social legislation which places restrictions on employers, the constant increase in the cost of living with which consumers are faced, the ruin of the peasants by bad harvests, the working classes excited by a propaganda of envy and hatred, and the general discontent of all classes of society, are all attributed in one way or another to the political institutions. At the same time it is realized how the problems with which the legislature has now to deal tend to become more difficult and more complex, owing to their economic and financial character.

One reform which has engaged the attention of many writers of late is the introduction of proportional representation. M. Aron says its adoption would still make bad and oppressive laws possible. The real problem which must be tackled is the problem of legislative power, the legislative mechanism. The simplest and surest way of perfecting it, one which would not raise any question of principle, consists in reforming the parliament's method of work.

Parliament, not being limited by the judicial or by the executive power, is absolutely omnipotent. The power of the Senate has almost disappeared; slowly but surely it is coming to do the bidding of the Chamber. Though it is hostile in principle to several recent laws, it passed them all the same, and it will pass others of which it does not approve. The writer asks whether it would be possible to institute in France a sort of supreme court, similar to that of the United States, as a protection against the tyranny and abuses of the legislature, but comes to the conclusion that such a reform is not advisable. A supreme court in France might prove an instrument of reaction, it might snatch the sovereignty from the representatives of the nation, and it might oppose and arrest the most generous aspirations of the present democratic movement. The legislative power in France cannot be limited, because such a limitation would be contrary to French history and customs, because it would be inefficacious in practice, and, lastly, because the legislative power is already more energetically limited than it would be by a conservative Senate or a supreme court.

The real danger to-day is not that parliament is omnipotent in the making of laws, but that it encroaches so much on the other powers, notably on the executive, perverting by its constant intervention all the machinery of the administration.

Reform, therefore, can only come from the wisdom of parliament. There is one point in which a useful reform could at once be brought about, namely, in the manner of making the laws. The present mode often results in laws which cannot be enforced, laws with confused and contradictory wording, making the interpretation of them a political question, and leaving the citizens uncertain as to their rights and obligations. Parliament should know what it wants, and be able to express it clearly.

In the *Nouvelle Revue* M. Paul Brunoy writes on the constitution of 1875 and the executive power, and in a succeeding issue of the same magazine he has an article in which he compares the executive power in France with that of the United States. In France, he says, the executive power does not exist. Under the constitution of 1875 the power of the President is nil. The President is at the mercy of the chambers. No initiative is permitted to him. Formally he presides over the council, but in truth it is a sorry part which he plays as the so-called chief at the deliberations in which the constitution does not permit him to participate. Chosen by the members of parliament, he is of the party which has a majority in the chamber, and which keeps him in tutelage. He merely signs and promulgates the decrees prepared by his ministers. He is the executive. He executes, but he is not responsible. It is his irresponsibility which is the mischief. As the representative of the nation he ought to personify the permanent interests of France, yet he represents nothing, while the power of the chambers is absolute.

Though the United States, like France, is a democracy, and at the present moment the two nations are guided by the same general principles, the Americans, far-seeing and practical, have taken care to establish on a firm basis the separation of the powers, and, having done that, they have put at the head of the executive power an independent chief elected by universal suffrage. Against the legislative power he is armed with the powerful right of the veto. His authority over the administration is complete. He is responsible; his ministers are merely administrators. Not dependent on Congress, thanks to the mode of his election, he is a government which governs.

A NEW SYSTEM OF GAS ILLUMINATION IN PARIS

THE struggle between gas and electricity for the honor—and profit—of lighting city streets is as keen as ever. Each has had its day of supremacy. To-day, if we may judge from results reported from Paris, the advantage has again swung gas-ward. *Le Génie Civil* devotes considerable space to a study of the tests made with the Boulevard Raspail installation, and certain details taken from that source are here given.

About 1820 the simple butterfly burner had replaced the oil lamps of our forefathers. The carbon-filament electric lamps did not find their way into general use at once: they did not give a better light, while their cost was fairly high. Yet their convenience made them popular for lighting apartments and shops, and gas was losing ground in this field until Dr. Auer's invention of the incandescent mantle brought the means by which gas was to regain its former supremacy. Nevertheless, though more costly than gas lamps, the electric arc lamps have been preferred for the larger thoroughfares, because of their greater power, while gas has to a large extent been relegated to the smaller streets.

For some time past novel experiments upon gas-lighting have been conducted in various parts of Paris,—notably upon the Boulevard Raspail,—with the object of discovering a satisfactory substitute for the arc light. The source of light in this case is an incandescent mantle, or group of mantles, heated by a burner supplied with gas under pressure.

It is well known that an incandescent mantle shows a marked increase in intensity as its temperature rises. But the temperature of the Bunsen burner depends chiefly upon the amount of air which the gas carries mixed with it to the burner-tip. The ideal proportion would be 5.5 volumes of air to 1 volume of gas; but the pressure in the service mains (2-3 inches of water) does not give the gas sufficient velocity, as it enters the burner, to enable it to sweep along with it so great a proportion of air, and the mixture actually formed, consisting of from 2.5 to 3 volumes of air to 1 of gas, does not permit of complete combustion. In order at least to approximate the ideal mixture upon the combustion of which the maximum brilliancy depends, three methods suggest themselves: (1) Prepare in advance a mixture in the desired proportion; (2) compress the air so that it can be admitted to the burner in any

desired proportion; (3) compress the gas, which can thus be made, as it escapes from the jet, to suck in a larger proportion of air. These several methods have been tried; the third is the one preferred by the Paris Société du Gaz for its installations along the Rue du Quatre-Septembre, in the Place de l'Opéra, and finally,—and most important of all,—in the Boulevard Raspail. For the latter installation, the gas delivered by the service main is compressed with the aid of two underground pumps driven by a 10-horse-power gas motor, and sent, under a pressure of 1.4 metres (56 inches) of water, into the three special pipes for the boulevard lights. The lamps are borne by 116 posts of the type usually employed for arc lights, and consist each of three burners and three mantles. Of these lamps 88 are of the Hefner 2000-candle type and consume 1100 litres (39 cubic feet) of gas per hour each; the other 28 consume twice as much gas and yield a light of 4000 candle-power.

Illumination by compressed gas offers various important advantages over that by arc lights. In the first place, it costs much less. According to the figures given out by the Paris Société du Gaz, it is estimated that the cost of lighting,—including the expense of compressing the gas, that of repairs, of replacing mantles and globes, but not including sinking-fund charges,—is 0.12 centime per Carcel-hour, or about 0.03 mill per candle-hour. By the use of compressed gas a saving of about 70 per cent. over arc lamps is claimed, for equal illumination.

To this first advantage must be added another: the possibility of shutting off part of the light after a given hour,—something which cannot be done as yet with the electric light. A comparison of the cost of lighting by compressed gas, with full intensity up to midnight and decreased intensity from midnight to daybreak, with that by arc lamps with full intensity all night, shows a saving of over 80 per cent. by the former. Finally, the problem of an automatic lighting system would appear to have been solved. Taking advantage of the notable difference of pressure in the mains at the time of lighting, at midnight, and at daybreak, a device has been put into service which opens the flow of gas to the burners at evening twilight and, after these are lit, extinguishes the tiny pilot light which burns all day. At about midnight two of the three main burners are

extinguished; finally, at daybreak the pilot light is again lit and the third burner extinguished,—and all this automatically!

As a result of the tests on a large scale upon the Boulevard Raspail, the adoption of powerful incandescent lamps using compressed gas will doubtless be furthered in Paris, at least for the lighting of very wide and much frequented streets. The experiment will be watched with interest.

THE LEAGUE BETWEEN GERMANY AND AUSTRIA

“WE and the German Empire” is the caption of a suggestive and informing article in a late issue of the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna). The writer shows that the alliance between the two countries is not merely a political one—as are so many such unions—based as it is upon the solid ground of a common feeling of nationality and of common interests. He dwells, at the outset, upon the historical foundation of the union, concluding with a survey of its present status. We reproduce some of his leading points:

The league between Austria-Hungary and Germany forms decidedly the most gratifying feature in the foreign policy of the former. In distinction to that with Italy, it exists not merely on paper. As a convincing proof of this, it forms but comparatively rarely the theme of political discussion. Though in force thirty years—virtually forty, counting from the Triple Imperial Alliance, which included Russia, of 1872—time has only strengthened it, in spite of efforts at disruption, which would have been hailed by the numerous enemies of the two powers. But, astonishing as is the continuance of this alliance, that it was entered into at all is perhaps a still more astounding fact. For nearly a century and a half Austria and Prussia had contended for supremacy in Germany, and when this long rivalry was definitely settled at Königgrätz in favor of Prussia, friendly relations between them seemed inconceivable. Austria was too deeply humbled to suppose aught but that she would seize the first opportunity to revenge herself. But, distant as the possibility of a favorable understanding seemed, Bismarck had weighed it, and recognized it as an absolute necessity for his future plans and a thing that must be taken into account in the treaty of peace. How difficult it was to achieve this in view of the opposition of his royal master and his military advisers, Bismarck recounts in his reminiscences. This opposition is very comprehensible—to check the splendid course of victory before a final battle which, if successful, would mean a triumphal march into Vienna was, for a thorough-going soldier like William, for his conquering generals, an unexampled demand; granted, indeed, only on Bismarck's threat of resignation. Bismarck in persisting in his attitude, risking his own future, proved his greatness as a statesman who penetrated into the future. His idea, according to his memories, was to leave no incurable sting, such as the entry into Vienna, in the Austrian mind; to keep the way open for future amicable relations.

Seriously damaged, Austria would become the ally of France and every other opponent. She would sacrifice even her anti-Russian interests in her revenge against Prussia.

These thoughts distinctly foreshadow the alliance. That the fear of venturing all upon a single throw, of losing the fruits of the astounding series of victories may have entered into Bismarck's calculations is possible—his policy was probably a compound of both considerations.

There was great danger in Austria joining France in the Franco-Prussian War; but she put the sword, already half-drawn, back into its scabbard. And now came Bismarck's chance of an alliance. One thing, in particular, remained to be overcome—the wounded pride of Francis Joseph, who, however, showed anew the art of being able to forget, to subordinate his feelings to the interests of his country. And thus the alliance for which Bismarck had striven, was consummated, Russia, too, being included. It was, however, of short duration. The opposing interests of Austria and Russia in the Balkans aroused such inimical feelings between them that their permanent alliance became untenable. In the difficult alternative of choosing between Austria-Hungary and Russia, Bismarck chose the former; personally preferring Russia, he favored an alliance with the Hapsburg monarchy as being more advantageous to Germany. And thus an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between them in 1879. Four years later Italy joined the union, making it again a *Dreibund* such as it exists to-day; but Italy's relations with the two monarchies, and notably with Austria-Hungary, have always been cooler than those between themselves. The retirement of Bismarck, who was antagonized by many in Austria, and, moreover, the accession of William II., in whom there lurked no spirit of rivalry or animosity to the Hapsburg monarchy, led to a still firmer and friendlier union of the two powers. The new ruler, unprejudiced, and moved to sympathetic admiration of the sorely tried Austrian monarch, conceived a warm friendship for the latter which he has manifested on every possible occasion.

Three elements in the alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary invest it with a peculiar character, essentially distinguishing it from other confederations, notably from the *Triple Entente*—the close friendship of the monarchs, geographical position,

and its popularity. The rulers' cordial relations need no further comment. Nor need the geographical feature be dwelt upon. The states of the *Triple Entente* are sundered by an immense distance—Russia on one side, England and France on the other; whereas Germany and Austria-Hungary form a spatial whole, which gives them a strategic advantage in case of war.

The third element, then,—the popularity of the alliance,—that distinguishes it from the *Triple Entente* is the only one remaining to be considered. It may be interposed that the Franco-Russian union is popular, but it is not a genuine popularity. The French *élan* for Russia is conditioned solely upon enmity and a thirst for revenge against Germany, and is comparatively recent, as is evidenced by 1812 and 1854. And in Russia friendship for France is restricted to the higher social circles. A real harmony between the two nations is precluded, indeed, by their radically contrasting characteristics. Still less than between the Russians and the French can there be any sympathy between those two peoples and the English. France and England confronted each

other as arch-enemies for centuries and that this antipathy is not extinguished was shown in the Fashoda affair. And between Russia and England there is an opposition of interests in Asia which has been bridged, perforce and for a time, only by a common aversion to Germany. Quite otherwise are the relations between Germany and the Hapsburg monarchy. True, in their case, too, there was a traditional opposition, but not between the whole of Germany and Austria, only Prussia and the latter. This opposition, however, did not prevent the two powers from often making common cause politically and in war, thus feeling that they were parts of a common whole—the German Confederation. The memory of this intimate connection makes the alliance far more popular than mere practical political considerations, which weigh very little with the people, could make it; a strong evidence of this is offered by the passionate aversion of the Italians to Austria, in spite of their official union. This memory is a far more potent factor, too, than that of racial unity, being grounded in one of the strongest of human sentiments—in custom; while the racial feeling is confined to the fact that the people of Germany and the German-speaking inhabitants of Austria—radically different as they may be otherwise—both feel like Germans.

HAS THE GERMAN ARMY BEEN OVERRATED?

THE idea held by the world in general that the German army is a model for all others, and that it is far stronger than any other, is challenged by Hilaire Belloc, member of the English Parliament and critical writer. Mr. Belloc has served as a conscript in the French army, and has also studied the strong and weak points of the German forces for years. In an article in the magazine *London*, he gives it as a result of his investigations that the German army will be discovered to be something much on a par with any other conscript force, with advantages and also with disadvantages of its own.

Among the advantages he reckons that: (1) No army will be mobilized so smoothly as the German. The German proletariat has shown no capacity for resistance to the orders of Government, or of their economic masters. "The Socialist vote is only a vote," and has no appreciable effect on the conduct of affairs—none whatever on the military arrangements. It is otherwise in France or in Russia. (2) The Germans have not to fear jealousy between their chief commanders. (3) The rapidly increasing population of Germany ensures a choice of the best material for their fighting force.

But conscription in Germany is not universal—as it is in France, for example. Every single person you see in France has been a private soldier. But of five German men not

three have been real soldiers. The large German population allows for an increasing number of exceptions. The young men let off have a few weeks' training, and form the compensatory reserve. Hence the nation is not the army, as in France. Mr. Belloc suggests, as a parallel, a population with 20, 30, or 40 per cent. of illiterates, as compared with a universally educated people.

In Germany, also, what he calls the articulate part of the nation—those who write and speak and direct thought, though they wear a uniform and are called soldiers for one year—do not live as private soldiers in the barracks, as do Frenchmen of the same class.

From this caste of privileged men the officers of the reserve are chosen, but they do not know, and consequently enlightened public opinion in Germany does not know, the private soldier. The sergeant or non-commissioned officer who does the real business of keeping the men down and performs the dirty, harsh part of the moral work, is a professional, bound to long service. He is to the troops a sort of jailer or warder. The German system cuts him off from his men, and makes another animal of him. This lack of sympathy is the loss of a great asset. Then the German is under aristocratic command, which entirely prevents any promotion from the ranks. So it deprives the service of any real experience of the soldier's life on the part of the officer. The German officer is purely regimental. Having a limited aristocratic area from which to choose their officers, the higher command in Germany has a smaller reserve of intelligence from which to draw.

The presence of the Polish contingents, who keep their language, their purity of blood, and their religion, is a danger. "The Poles are more intelligent than their masters by far; they not only hate the German, but they heartily despise him." What their effect would be under the strain of a reverse is serious to contemplate.

The last disadvantage upon which Mr. Belloc dwells is the exaggeration of detail in German service.

System is overdone: it kills initiative, it spells utter collapse when circumstances upset the systematic plan. During the last forty years there have been two specimens of German military activity. Both were laughable fiascos, and in both the fiasco was due to excessive planning. The German was the latest, slowest, and worst equipped of the contingents designed for the relief of Peking. Of his horses, the shoes had been left behind in Europe. In the war against the Herreros a few hundred naked savages were overcome or bought out at an expense of twenty-two millions of pounds, nearly two shillings in the pound of the great British South African campaign near by.

WHY THERE IS NO SWISS NATIONAL ART

IN view of the different races composing the Swiss republic, its division into language and religious domains, the lack of a pervading national temperament, the opinion that Switzerland has in reality no national art is not surprising. Such a view is maintained very plausibly by a writer, C. A. Loosli, in the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* of Munich. From the days of Hans Holbein the younger to the present, Switzerland, says Herr Loosli, has never lacked good, and seldom eminent, artists, while in the last twenty years Swiss artists have gained a noteworthy position in the great international expositions. Böcklin, Segantini, and Hodler, indeed, are now regarded as masters of international significance. A host of younger artists are following in their wake—Swiss art has really entered upon a period of renaissance.

Since, in spite of all differences of conception and execution, a certain ruggedness runs through most of its art, a Swiss national art is beginning to be spoken of, or even taken for granted, abroad. What, however, strikes outsiders as specifically Swiss is mistakenly attributed to national feeling.

A national art, this writer reminds us, presupposes, above all things, "a long period of conscious cultural unity; moreover, a traditional community of ideas, and a subordination of the artist to the ideals cherished by the nation."

The Swiss artist, however, is an individualist, and if in other aspects of life he does not stand outside his people, in his art he is, as a rule, little influenced by their spirit. This is not surprising. For, firstly, there is no Swiss race in the temperamental sense, and that is an essential in a national art. Switzerland is composed of twenty-five states, four language domains, two religious divisions, and several dozen races, which, though grown accustomed to one another, have never thoroughly assimilated. This state of affairs has naturally resulted in an absolute decentralization

of culture, and, as a fact, the culture of Basel differs from that of Zurich or Geneva, as do the standards of these from those of agrarian Berne. A common culture will become possible only when every vestige of cantonalism shall have disappeared. But perhaps precisely then a Swiss national art will, more than ever, be out of the question, because the prerequisite temperament will have been destroyed in the jumble consequent upon the universalizing process. Heaven guard Switzerland from becoming one and indivisible in the sphere of culture and art, for that would mean no more nor less than a poor Academy, devoid, as it would be, of tradition!

These varied cultural standards, Herr Loosli goes on to say, have had still another effect. While a great part of western Switzerland has, since Francis I, been in close touch with French civilization, the German-speaking portions of the country have been more inclined to a community of culture with Germany, and the Italian Graubünden with Italy. The very fact of Swiss conditions not being conducive to national standards, strengthened the people's imitative and assimilative powers.

Thus we see why it was that France, primarily, then Germany and Italy, exercised an enduring influence upon Helvetic art. While French taste predominated in Switzerland throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, we see it lose its sway in the nineteenth, and it is only recently that young Swiss artists have again turned toward Paris in increasing numbers. As a fact, the Swiss ideal of beauty has always conformed to that which prevailed among their neighbors who chanced to be most powerful.

The question as to what position the Swiss people occupy to their art has been half answered above.

They assume no position, indeed; first, because they cherish no national ideals, and, secondly, because they are uncritical. A people poor like the Swiss has more urgent interests than an assiduous cultivation of art, and the spiritual condition con-

sequent upon concentrating attention upon providing for the necessities of life, is not favorable to art. On the other hand, every Swiss considers himself, in a measure, an authority. Because from his coming of age he has helped to guide the political fortunes of his country, he believes himself highly endowed in every other field, including that of art. This naive, democratic self-confidence of the average Swiss closes his senses to the real significance of a work of art; and he needs no standards of comparison and wants none. Nowhere else, consequently, do we so often hear "Art should . . ." followed by some monumental stupidity. The artist, if he wishes to enjoy the favor of the public, must descend to its level.

If the critical estimates of a country be the measure of its position to art the writer's assertions would be confirmed, he remarks, by Swiss art criticism.

In Switzerland every reporter writes about art. Outside of half a dozen professional critics, Swiss art criticism is of no account. It is more demagogic than national; the majority of these critics have, like the great body of the people, no standards of comparison. They are compelled to rectify their judgments very swiftly and do so without shame or contrition, after the really decisive critics beyond the Rhine or the Doubs have spoken.

Switzerland, consequently, is a hard soil for the fine arts, and it is "well that it is so, for it compels the individual to develop his powers independently."

Nowhere else, perhaps, is there such ample room for the free development of artistic tastes, for nowhere else is the artist less dominated by conventions. The rise to mastery is conditioned upon an all-conquering will, and it is thus that a selection of real temperaments is formed. This accounts for such variously gifted artists as Böcklin, Segantini, Welty, Hodler, Rodo von Niederhäusern. To the nascent Swiss artist, who can look for encouragement only from within, his ideal must be decisive, and, therefore, he remains true to it, simple in his conceptions and synthetic in his work. Every notable Swiss artist has had to invent his art, so to speak, and he has, consequently, full mastery over it. He is not national in his art, but indigenous. That accounts for the trait that characterizes Swiss artists. And there are many of them; they form a phalanx whose members are clearly stamped as being Swiss. Some of them have been recognized, nay, admired abroad. To these, Switzerland, too, pays reverential tribute; not, however, for patriotic reasons, for the Swiss who praises enthusiastically to-day what he reviled yesterday is not convinced, but vanquished. and bows not to ability, but to success.

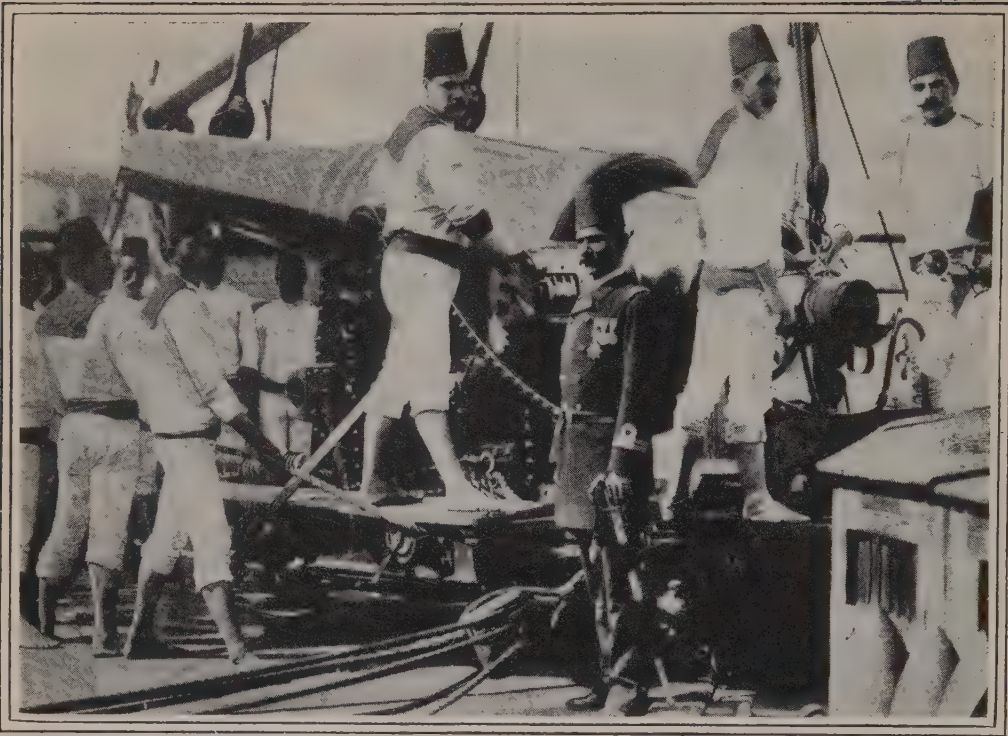
TURKEY'S DETERMINATION TO RESIST

AFTER the first shock of the Italian declaration of war had passed, and the Turks had again found themselves, the press of the entire Ottoman Empire began to counsel resistance to the end. The furious, rhetorical attacks upon Italy, which filled the pages of the Turkish journals during the first few days of the war, soon gave way to more temperate discussion. The polyglot press of the Ottoman journals, printed in Turkish, Arabian, Albanian, Kurdish, Greek, Armenian, Egyptian, and the various European languages, set forth arguments showing the necessity for resistance based on political reasons at home and abroad. They also published long arrays of figures and elaborate economic arguments showing the loss they could inflict upon the development of Italian industry, commerce, and shipping if they held out long enough. In the end,—they have been insisting,—not only will the enthusiasm of Italy be dampened, but the Government of Rome be forced to sue for peace. The general tenor of the editorials may be noted from a vigorous leader in the *Jeune Turc*, the closing sentences of which are: "The motto of the Grand Vizier must be resistance to the end. Italy will not dare to attack us anywhere else than in Tripoli.

Can we resist? Whether we can or not, we must, to the last man and the last cartridge in Tripoli." The same journal, discussing the relation of Egypt to the war in Tripoli, insists that Britain has never denied the right of the Sultan to use the "Imperial Egyptian Army" to defend Tripoli if His Majesty should so desire.

The Committee of Union and Progress—the Young Turk Government—was holding its annual convention at Salonica when the war opened. The Committee adopted the strongest kind of a policy of resistance, and determined upon a complete, rigid boycott of Italian commerce. In the course of a proclamation issued to the world explaining its point of view, the Committee said:

The conduct of the Italians, incompatible with the noble principles of law, justice, humanity, and civilization, has provoked in the heart of every Ottoman a deep sentiment of hatred and disgust. . . . Our enemy of to-day did not think that instead of a shameful silence there would be a sublime explosion of patriotism. He did not think that in order to rob, even a small parcel of our territory, the noise of guns and battleships would not be enough. He did not think how he plays with the sacred rights of a nation; he did not even think in what a shameful manner he will be looked upon by history, that fearless critic. Unfortunately, we observe that all the societies for peace



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

TURKISH SAILORS ON A WARSHIP OPERATING ONE OF THE BIG GUNS

who work for universal brotherhood, do not lift their voices to-day, because it is Turkey that is attacked. . . . All those who talk about right and justice are mute. . . . International law exists only when it is not favorable to us, but never when right is on our side. . . . In view of this we must only count upon our own strength and unity. . . . The Ottoman nation wants to live for progress. We have tried to do this for three years, by superhuman efforts, notwithstanding numerous difficulties at home and abroad. . . . While we have tried to be in the Orient an element of peace and progress, we find ourselves attacked by a nation, which, under the veil of civilization and liberty, destroys those principles inherited from Europe, which we have admired and respected. . . . We have shown that we are a nation which does not weaken or lose its calm, even in misfortune. Italy will be responsible before history, that pitiless judge, for the blood which will flow.

In urging the Grand Vizier to wage war to the bitter end against the Italian army in the field, the Turkish press also demands the adoption of vigorous measures against all Italians residing in Turkey, and quotes international law authorities as to the right of the Porte to expel citizens or hold them as hostages within its territory. Claiming that all the Arab tribes in Tripoli and Cyrenaica are ready and organized, and that Egyptians are flocking by thousands to the Moslem ban-

ners, these journals threaten Italy with more than one new "Adowa" (referring to the Italian defeat in 1896 by the Abyssinians at Adowa). A number of the journals, chief among them the *Tanine* (Echo), are circulating pledges all over the Ottoman dominions to be signed by faithful Moslems that they will not have dealings with Italians, never speak the Italian language, never attend Italian schools nor travel on Italian steamers, and, binding themselves to "plant in the hearts of their children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren eternal hatred for Italy." Characterizing the spoliation of Africa by Europe as barbarous, the *Jeune Turc* refers contemptuously to the peace societies, and bitterly denounces the financial organizations of Europe, such as the Banca di Roma, and the commercial enterprises, such as those directed by the Mannesmann brothers, for their "piratical acts." It says:

With pain we note the fact that, although the world has advanced much in science and in art, these industrial corporations are no different from the barbarians of old, who wrecked without any good to themselves, the entire world. . . . But Europe shall know that Islam is not what it was a century ago. It has come to know itself, and to realize that the twentieth century will see its renaissance.

Most of the Turkish journals are giving a good deal of publicity to the friendly opinions expressed by various European journals for their cause. They quote copiously from these journals, which include most of the newspapers of Holland, Austria-Hungary, and Germany, and many in England and France—the chief exceptions being semi-official organs such as the *Times*, of London, the *Temps*, of Paris, and the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg. The Socialist and Radical press of all countries, being against war in general, also furnishes comfort to the beleaguered Turks. Particularly significant are the quotations from the Socialist journals opposing the war. The Socialists in the Balkan States and in Turkey, we learn, are organizing a party to further the project of a Balkan federation. The Turkish Socialists themselves, who have several deputies in the Parliament, are outspoken in their advocacy of this scheme. The Moslem press of Egypt insists that the Tripolitan question is not

only of importance to Turkey, but to all the Moslems of North Africa, particularly to the Egyptians.

Besides the editorial encouragement thus given, the government at Constantinople (at least, so we learn from these Turkish journals) is constantly receiving promises of adhesion from the tribes on the outskirts of its dominions, including the former rebel chiefs of Yemen and the Mohammedan brotherhoods in Africa and Asia. Noteworthy among these are the famous brotherhoods of the Senussiye (of which we have more to say in another article this month). Even the Ottoman women are agitating and calling for stern resistance to the enemy. A clever Turkish woman writer, who signs herself "Revne Hanoum," says: "Have we not reared our children for this supreme moment? They will be ashamed of us if we do not defend ourselves. Courage, oh, our brothers! Let us not fear Europe, but teach her that we are still the Turkey of the glorious Osman."

THE SENUSSIYEH, THE ALL-MOHAMMEDAN BROTHERHOOD

THE prominence given in the despatches from Tripoli to the part which the mysterious order of the Senussiye has already begun to play in the resistance to the Italian invasion, lends a special interest to the history of its origin and work in that part of Africa lying between the Mediterranean and the tenth degree of north latitude. In no part of the world under the Crescent are the religious, political, and military powers so inseparable as in the African lands of Islam. Abd-el-Kadir, the leader of the Algerians in their resistance to the French, was a priest, a marabout, universally venerated, descended from a priestly family tracing back to the Fatimides. Ma-el-Ainin, quite recently deceased, the master of central Morocco and the northwest Sahara, was also a marabout, a saint and teacher of religion, and founder of the fanatical order of the "Blues." Throughout all Turkish Africa, with the exception of a narrow belt along the coast, the Senussiye order is all-powerful, and the opposition to the Italian advance will depend on the energy with which they throw themselves into the struggle.

So far little has been known regarding this order, but an anonymous German writer, believed to be a military man who has spent some time among them, has recently given a

remarkably interesting account of it. At the time the French were combating Abd-el-Kadir unsuccessfully, a certain Henri Roche was seized by an idea which received the secret support of his government. He embraced Islamism and gained access to Abd-el-Kadir, with whom he remained a number of years, during which time he profited by the opportunities offered to study the political and military situation, and to enter into relations with certain of the Kabyle chiefs, always in rivalry or at war with each other. He came back persuaded that the power of the great Emir would remain unshaken so long as it was not undermined from the religious side. Assisted by the French Government, he set to work.

Returning to Paris and simulating the part of a Mussulman tormented by scruples, he submitted to the professors of one of the most famous theological schools in Tunis, the *Diambi es Sibouni*, the question of how the commandment of the Koran regarding war against unbelievers should be interpreted. By means of money and fallacious arguments he succeeded in obtaining a fetva, or dogmatic decision, saying:

War against unbelievers is the duty of every Mussulman. But when a war against a nonbelieving power has lasted a long time, and that it



Photograph by the American Press Association, New York

FORT BUILT BY CHARLES V. IN TRIPOLI, WHERE MANY OF THE EMINENT TURKISH EXILES WERE IMPRISONED BEFORE THE ITALIAN INVASION

has shown the possibility that it might conquer, the war must be given up on condition that that power only pretends to political domination without persecuting religion. For it would be a sin to diminish the empire of God by causing Mussulmans to sacrifice themselves uselessly.

Armed with this fetva, Roche went to Cairo, where, with the assistance of the Khedive, who had need of the help of France against the Porte, he procured a similar decision. But he had a further step to take. He went to Mecca, the Holy City. There, again, the highest authority on matters of faith, represented by the professors of the University of El Haram, rendered a similar decision, influenced by the same methods that had so well succeeded at Tunis and Cairo. With these three documents he returned to Algiers, and began the subterranean work by which he eventually detached the adherents of Abd-el-Kadir one after another from their master, whose power eventually succumbed before the energetic attacks of the French.

The decision of the University of El Haram had been taken by unanimity, less one vote.

That single voice was that of Sidi Mohammed ben Ali es Senussiye, an Algerian monk who lived at Mecca, but who had not forgotten his own country. Having witnessed the corruption of his colleagues, he saw that Islam had need of regeneration, which he forthwith undertook to bring about. He founded an order to which he gave his name, the Senussiye. At Mecca, however, he made indifferent progress, but from the time that he returned to Africa and established the seat of the order at Djaraboub, an oasis in the eastern Sahara, his success was rapid.

The doctrine of the Senussiye is simple. It is described thus:

We lived happily, content and without wants before the unbelievers came into our lands. Now all are dissatisfied; now manners and ideas, detested of the faithful, are introduced into the lands of Allah. How shall we return to the ancient purity of our faith, to our former happiness? By keeping at a distance the unbelievers from the countries of Islam.

The historical and social value of this formula is not great, but it had a marvellous

influence on men of little education, especially those who had already begun to suffer from the penetration of the stranger. Its teachings even formed followers in the Malay peninsula and islands. But its greatest successes were in Africa, where its disciples are to be found among the little civilized regions, the oases of the Sahara, and wherever the Islamic propaganda has been carried, as along the course of the Senegal and on the Somali coast. It is also said to be spreading into Yemen, Egypt, and the Niger regions; and its adherents everywhere are estimated at nine millions, a probably exaggerated figure.

Up to now the action of the Senussiyeh has been directed against the French, who are experiencing in Wadai and the Soudan the results of their Algerian policy. The relations of the Senussiyeh with the Turks were at one time less than friendly, but they have changed since the revolution of 1908. Tripoli

was during the old régime in Turkey a penal colony for political exiles, some of whom are now leaders and enjoy the sympathy of those among whom they were banished. Of late the relations between Turks and Senussiyeh have become closer. The former have been pushing into the Sahara with the object of fixing the frontiers in another way than arranged between England and France, and so have conciliated the Senussiyeh.

Had the relations between the Turks and Senussiyeh remained what they formerly were in Tripoli, Benghazi, and Fezzan, it is probable that the hostility toward the masters of the country would have been stronger than their religious ardor.

But under the constitution the Turks have ceased to be oppressors. It is for this reason that the grandson of the founder of the order has now volunteered to lead his warriors against the Italians.

HOME PROBLEMS OF THE ITALIAN PREMIER

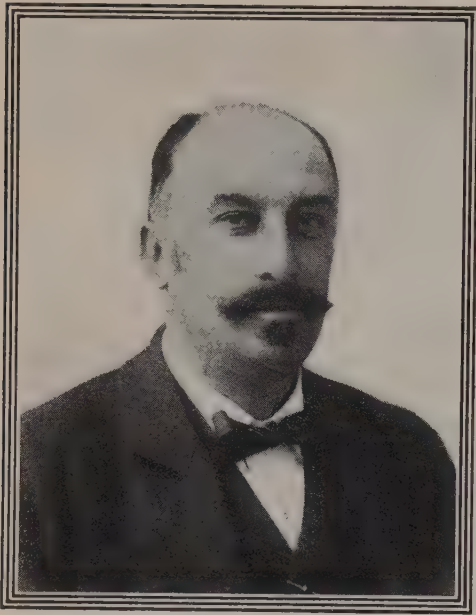
AFTER the Parliamentary crisis last March in the Italian Chamber of Deputies, the questions of State monopoly of life insurance and pensions for workmen and universal suffrage were left over for solution for the November session. The Liberal party split into two groups, one remaining faithful to Premier Giolitti and the other, consisting of many new to the chamber, practically formed a spirited opposition to the chief, and were dubbed by some wag "Young Turks," from their program of general reform of the Liberal party and return to its old position as moderator in the interest of the nation between the ultra-conservatives and the radical Socialists. Signor Giolitti, in his defense of his project of State monopoly of insurances, had turned to the Socialist benches in the Chamber and declared that the Liberal tradition had henceforward taken refuge with the Extreme Left.

In the *Rassegna Contemporanea* (Rome), Deputy Signor Gallenga exclaims:

If the Honorable Signor Giolitti, for purposes of argument, fell into such a trap for the exhibition of his political and historical ignorance, he was fortunately not able to obscure one of the most glorious ideals of modern Italy, the championship of sane progress and liberty constitutionally assigned to the Liberal party by its very name. The genius of Cavour and the union of the best elements of Piedmont and of all Italy disciplined marvelously this prodigious moderating force, destined to hold the balance between the excesses of both extremes—the party whose formula is neither

reaction nor revolution. After the union of Italy the vigor of the party naturally decreased, the stupendous task once accomplished. To-day, with Signor Giolitti aggravating the tendencies to socialism of his predecessors in office with the monopoly project and the attendant plan of universal suffrage, there is need for youthful ardor to regild Liberalism with its honesty and political rôle of fifty years ago. This group of young Liberals discussed in their convention at Florence in September universal suffrage particularly. The socialistic phraseology is earning easy popular applause for votes for the illiterate, and the greatest danger for the Liberal party lies in the possible fear of upholding a theory contrary to popular opinion. In the true Liberal conception, the suffrage reform ceases to be a purely political problem and becomes a larger question of education and national growth. If the principle of not lowering suffrage to the illiterate masses, but rather raising the illiterate masses to suffrage, is once admitted, the problem of elementary instruction presents itself as ever as the gravest and most immediate problem of Italy to-day. If all the energy which the Extreme Left expends for the granting of suffrage to the illiterate could be joined to that of the other parties in strengthening the scholastic system, it is certain that in a few years the suffrage would not only be immensely increased, but at the same time the development of our nation would be hastened. Besides, all parties are alive to the danger the illiterate present as easy victims to unfair political machinations.

Since state monopoly and universal suffrage would create grave risks for the free growth of individual initiative, for industrial and economical progress and for popular education, it is the duty of the Liberals to oppose Socialism even when their leader Giolitti attempts an artificial amalgam. And since the Hon. Signor Giolitti cannot be umpire between the two disputants, as he would



PREMIER GIOLITTI, OF ITALY

very much like to be, but the nation must decide, it is not surprising that the young Liberal group in opposition should seek without the Chamber in the strongholds of Italian Liberalism the sane and virile energy indispensable to dissipate the miasma caused by ministerial complacency, the shade of Karl Marx within the Chamber itself!

The Deputy Signor Sidney Sonnino, who in the March debates was prominent as adherent of the Honorable Signor Giolitti, writes in the *Nuova Antologia*:

Restricted suffrage gives food and justification to the socialist theory of the necessity of class hatred, inasmuch as it tends to organize state power on the basis of the interests of one class. The illiterate has, as his sole means of action, his vote, to attain the just respect of his rights and the guardianship of his legitimate interests. The possible participation of every citizen in the forming of the Government by means of election to the political conventions represents the legal foundation of his duty to suggest his government, and the regular exercise of this social mission educates in every one the sentiment of his civil duties and of the obligatory subordination of his will and his personal interests to the will and interests of the collectivity of which he is a part. Where there is no right to vote nor participation in social authority, the right to rebellion thrives. I do not deny that the introduction of universal suffrage may present many uncertainties and some danger for the steering of the ship of state, but I believe these dangers are much exaggerated, and that it may be confidently expected from the energy, wisdom and breadth of view of the Liberal party proper to avoid these eventual dangers of the reform. The great political problem of the moment consists, to use De Tocqueville's phrase, in defending society from demagogism by means of the best organizations of democracy. In universal suffrage alone is presented a means of attaining a governing force capable of representing and guarding the general interests, assailed as they are by the coalition of particular groups with selfish or restricted aims.

THE WORLD'S LOFTIEST TELEPHONE LINE

THE telephone line connecting the plains of Italy with the highest pinnacle of Italian soil—the summit of Monte Rosa—deserves more superlatives than the one used in our title.

The meteorological and geophysical observatory forming the skyward terminus of this line was opened in 1904, and is at present the highest observatory in Europe and the second highest in the world (altitude 14,960 feet). It is named in honor of the Queen Dowager of Italy, who, together with the Duke of the Abruzzi, took an active part in its foundation. To it pertain three meteorological stations at lower levels; viz., a base-station at Alagna, and intermediate stations at Valdobbia and the Col d'Alen. This institution is now probably the most important European center of studies relating to high mountain climate, including the physiological as well as the physical aspects of the subject. It is open to the *savants* of all nationalities who are courageous enough to

scale the second highest summit of the Alps, and to live under the trying climatic conditions prevailing thereon. It is, in fact, habitable for only about two months; viz., from the middle of July to the middle of September.

Until recently the means of sending messages promptly between the summit and the lower stations—a matter of much importance for both material and scientific reasons—were (1) visual signals and (2) carrier pigeons. The former method was, of course, frequently unavailable on account of clouds and fog.

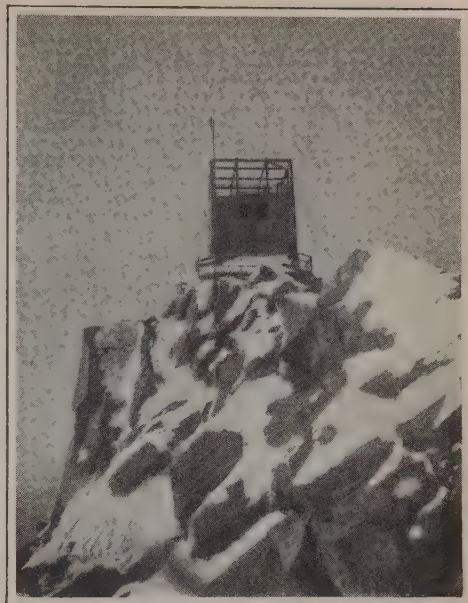
The remarkable feat of building a telephone line to the summit—the beginning of which dates from the summer of 1908—is described by Dr. A. Gradenwitz, in *Cosmos* (Paris). The mere task of getting the *matériel* over the glacier-clad slopes was an almost superhuman achievement. The wires, poles, and apparatus were first carried to the Col d'Alen (altitude 9800 feet) by mules and porters (chiefly women). From that point they were transported by two sturdy mountaineers, Giovanni

and Lorenzo Scolari, whom Dr. Alessandri, the director of the observatory, considers the true heroes of the enterprise.

The poles, thirteen feet long, were set up in the snow, and to a great extent on the surface of moving glaciers, at intervals of about 330 feet. In order that the shifting of the poles might not break the wires the latter, instead of being wound around the insulators in the usual manner, were passed through rings, thus being allowed free play. The middle of each stretch of wire, between the poles, rested on the snow, while in the uppermost section of the line, between the Col du Lys and the summit, poles were dispensed with altogether, the wire being simply laid on the surface of the dry snow. The line was completed in 1908, but refused to work, and it was then decided to increase the number of poles in the lower portion of the line.

When work was resumed in 1909 it was found that the alignment of the poles had been greatly deranged by the moving glaciers, and many poles had been completely buried in the snow. This, however, had been foreseen, and by dint of much hard work the poles were restored to their proper places.

During both seasons many unforeseen obstacles arose, but were overcome by the resourcefulness of Dr. Alessandri and the indefatigable efforts of his workmen. Thus at the Gnifetti Cabin, in order to secure an adequate grounding of the circuit, the director caused himself to be lowered by a rope into the crevasse of a glacier, at the bottom of which he found a small lake which answered the purpose admirably. In one of the lower sections of the line two valleys had to be



THE MONTE ROSA OBSERVATORY
(Altitude 14,960 feet; the highest telephone station
in the world)

crossed, each over 3000 feet wide. In each case a single span of heavy steel wire was installed. On September 8, 1909, the first messages were exchanged over the whole length of the line.

This unique telephone system has only an intermittent existence, as over a considerable part of the route the poles are removed during the winter and piled up where they can be readily recovered the following summer; thus much of the work of building the line has to be repeated from year to year.

WITH THE LIGHTHOUSE-BUILDERS

THERE are certain occupations, the results of which are of the greatest importance to mankind, in which the workers carry on their labors practically out of sight of their fellow men. The stokers in the depths of the great liners are unseen by the passengers whose "record trips" depend on their exhausting services. The miners, extracting "black diamonds" from the earth's recesses, pursue their calling in an under-world shut off from those whose very existence practically depends on the "output" of their grimy brethren. To these may be added the "sea-builders," as they are called,—the men who, on dangerous reefs and wave-washed rocks in all parts of the world, fight-

ing a ceaseless fight against tides, breakers, currents, and wind-storms, and hidden from the sight of land by the spray from the billows which threaten to overwhelm them, erect the beacon-towers on which depends the safety of those who "go down to the sea in ships." The coasts of the United States are illuminated at night by no fewer than 1479 lighthouses, besides 49 light-vessels; Canada maintains about 980 light-stations of all descriptions—towers, vessels, buoys, etc.; while the United Kingdom possesses 259 lighthouses and 64 light-vessels.

An interesting account of the building of some of the important lighthouses of the world is contributed to the *Westminster*



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IDA LEWIS, THE LIGHTHOUSE HEROINE

(Appointed keeper of the Lime Rock Lighthouse, in Narragansett Bay, by special act of Congress, in recognition of her gallantry in life-saving)

(Toronto, Canada) by Mr. Harold J. Shepstone, who observes that "ever since man began to navigate the waters he has endeavored to light them at night."

The father of lighthouses, of course, was the ancient Pharos of Alexandria, in Egypt. It was built by Ptolemy Philadelphus about 720 B.C. on a small island at the entrance to the harbor, connected by a causeway with the mainland. The Pharos cost 800 talents; if these were silver talents, as most likely they were, that would be equal to \$850,000, the largest sum ever expended upon a single lighthouse. The structure had a base of some 400 feet and towered 450 feet above sea-level. As the whole was built of white marble, the edifice must have been at once elegant and impressive. At the summit fires were kept burning to direct the mariner through the tortuous entrance to the bay.

The oldest example of a lighthouse extant to-day is that of Corduan on the west coast of France. This was built in 1584, and is "one of the most remarkable edifices in the world, being a beacon, a church, and a royal residence all in one."

Mr. Shepstone gives a stirring recital of the "hairbreadth 'scapes" connected with the building of the Eddystone, the Bell Rock, the Skerryvore, the Tillamook, and the Fastnet towers, and with the construction of the stone tower on Minot's Ledge Rock, off Boston Harbor, which last cost \$300,000. As a typical example of the terrible difficulties and dangers experienced by sea-builders, we select the following narrative of the construction of the Tillamook light, off the coast of Oregon:

Tillamook is a small abrupt rock formation, one mile from the mainland. Its sides are so precipitous, so inhospitable, that even in calm weather landing is extremely dangerous; and during the initial attempt to put a working party on the rock the foreman lost his life. The first thing the men had to do after they had effected a landing was to drive away a particularly vicious herd of sealions. The sea-builders then erected a shelter, made of iron and wood and bolted to the rock. One night a tornado drove the waves entirely over the rock, crushing in the tent in which the men slept, and washing away most of their provisions and nearly all their tools, clothing and equipment. For days at a time, in the coldest weather of a northern winter, they were compelled to lie clinging to the slippery rock, drenched with icy water, covered with swiftly succeeding storms of snow and sleet, and cut by the sharp sea-winds. During all this time they had not sufficient means of warming themselves, practically no fresh water to drink, and nothing to eat but hard-tack and bacon soaked in sea-water. Few Arctic explorers ever had to suffer the perils and privations to which these lighthouse builders were subjected. And yet they lived to build a great lighthouse on the summit of the rock. An idea of the strength of the waves at this spot may be gathered from the fact that only two winters ago a boulder weighing 148 pounds was lifted bodily by the waves and sent crashing down through the roof of the tower, which stands 132 feet above high-water level!

Down among the Florida reefs there are "wonderful structures built in the sea on what is termed the screw-pile method."

This consists in carrying a light and the keeper's quarters on iron piles driven deeply into the bed of the ocean. Some of these piles extend to a depth of 10 feet into living coral rocks. The method of erecting them is to build a temporary platform from which to conduct operations, with steam tugs standing by to take off the workers when the weather turns black. Exciting rescues often take place, especially in those waters where gales come on suddenly.

It is impossible to read Mr. Shepstone's paper without thinking of the lonely and romantic lives of those that occupy the towers when built. Quite an army of men are now employed in the lighthouse services of the world; and they now have their own exclusive journal, supplied together with other

suitable reading matter by the Lighthouse Literature Mission of Belfast. Nor must the women lightkeepers be forgotten, among whom stands foremost our own Ida Lewis (Mrs. Wilson), at Lime Rock Lighthouse, Newport, R. I., where she died on Octo-

ber 24, last, after fifty-four years of service. This brave woman had rescued eighteen persons from drowning, her record as a lifesaver surpassing that of Grace Darling in England. She had received a gold medal from Congress and many other testimonials of esteem.

A GREAT JAPANESE UNIVERSITY

THE University of Tokyo is the principal institution of higher education in Japan; its proper existence may be said to have begun in 1886 in the union of two colleges of much earlier foundation, which included departments of law, science, medicine, and literature; it has added departments of engineering and agriculture, both on a large scale; it has an astronomical observatory, a marine biological laboratory, botanical gardens, and seismometers; its buildings number more than fifty; and it has augmented the ranks of its students and professors till it has become one of the great universities of the world. So writes, in the *Hindustan Review*, Dr. Charles F. Thwing, President of Western Reserve University; and what President Thwing does not know about a university is scarcely worth knowing. He notices two great world-significances touching the higher education of Japan—the absence of the classical tradition and the absence of all teaching of religion. Whereas “the Anglo-Saxon world has since the revival of letters declared that an education without Latin and Greek was not a worthy education,” in Japan and its principal university “Latin is comparatively unknown and Greek is not read. The study of either language may be pursued, but it is pursued by a few only. In all Japan, Greek has been studied

chiefly as a means of reading the New Testament.”

In Japan, Confucius takes the place of Plato, and the Chinese classics occupy the place which Latin and Greek have held in English and American education for centuries. Dr. Thwing gives reasons for the inference “that the higher education and, in consequence, the Japanese mind, suffer by reason of the substitution.” Further, while the study of Greek literature gives culture, and the study of the Greek language creates power, no such process obtains in the study of the Chinese language and literature in the colleges and schools of Japan.

The method lies in the learning of ideographs. The number of these characters is unlimited. An ordinary Chinese dictionary gives 50,000. It is largely a training of the memory. The time is devoted to the reading of the great Chinese books accompanied by brief comments from the teacher. Such learning and reading may represent at their best culture, and at their worst intellectual gorging; but they do not create that personal and intellectual element of force which must precede, and is preparatory to culture.

Dr. Thwing cites the opinions of Japanese scholars themselves that the Japanese mind is “rather a knowing than a thinking mind.” It is not accurate in its working. This defect may be the result of the lecture system of conveying instruction and of the desire of



THE UNIVERSITY OF TOKYO

the Japanese student to take too many courses at one time. Some students indeed attend so many lectures that "they have little time left for reading, and less time for reflection." Where an ordinary American student will take twelve or fifteen lectures a week, the Japanese will take twenty-five or more; and Dr. Thwing knew some Japanese who attended lectures for six hours a day. Well might he say: "Such a method is intellectual gorging, stuffing."

As noted above, there is an absence of all religious teaching in the University of Tokyo. The inculcation of any one faith is rendered impossible, owing to the differences of religious beliefs obtaining among professors and students. Japan gives precedence to no one religion, but freedom to all. A religious census of three schools showed: Confucian, 1; Shinto, 1; Buddhists, 15; Christians, 4; atheists, 60; agnostics, 282; non-committal, 46.

One peculiar condition at the Tokyo University is the lack of dormitories.

The 5000 students are scattered up and down the little streets of the capital. The University assumes no responsibilities for them outside the Red Gate. The Japanese student is less mature than the German, and bears responsibility for himself less worthily. It is not, however, moral

supervision only which would result in a finer manhood; but it is also more and more to be remembered that students educate each other intellectually. . . . Private dormitories are helping to make up for the institutional lack. . . . The cost of board and room a month is about \$5—all of which represents Japanese economy and efficiency. In fact, \$150 a year would be regarded as a liberal allowance for meeting all expenses.

The University of Tokyo is influencing the whole nation in many special ways. It

trained the physicians and surgeons who helped the nation to defeat Russia in the last great war. Waterloo was no more truly won on the playing fields of Eton than Mukden was won in the laboratories of the medical department of the University of Tokyo.

In the higher education of Japan the great inspiring force is personal loyalty to the Emperor. "What the Emperor wills the people will. He wills war, and the people become soldiers and victors on sea and land. He wills education, and the people will to be educated." Dr. Thwing cites, as "worthy of being made the educational creed of every people," the closing sentence of the Emperor's rescript regarding education, issued in 1872: "It is designed henceforth that education shall be so diffused that there may not be a village with an ignorant family,—nor a family with an ignorant member."

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE —THE WISCONSIN IDEA

IN the opening chapter of his autobiography, now appearing in the *American Magazine*, Senator La Follette pays a noteworthy tribute to the University of Wisconsin, his *alma mater*, as well as to its former president, Dr. John Bascom, who died at Williamstown, Mass., on October 3d, at the age of eighty-four.

After speaking of his first conflict with bossism, at the outset of his political career, Senator La Follette says that in his refusal to acknowledge the authority of the boss he was merely expressing a common and widespread, though largely unconscious, spirit of revolt among the people—a movement of the new generation toward more democracy in human relationships.

No one had thought it out in sharply defined terms, but nearly every one felt it. It grew out of the intellectual awakening of which I have already spoken, the very center and inspirational point of which in Wisconsin was then, and has been ever since, the university at Madison.

It is difficult, indeed, to overestimate the part which the university has played in the Wisconsin revolution. For myself, I owe what I am and what I have done largely to the inspiration I received while there. It was not so much the actual course of study which I pursued; it was rather the spirit of the institution—a high spirit of earnest endeavor, a spirit of fresh interest in new things, and beyond all else a sense that somehow the State and the university were intimately related, and that they should be of mutual service.

The guiding spirit of my time, and the man to whom Wisconsin owes a debt greater than it can ever pay, was its president, John Bascom.

I never saw Ralph Waldo Emerson, but I should say that John Bascom was a man of much his type, both in appearance and in character. He was the embodiment of moral force and moral enthusiasm; and he was in advance of his time in feeling the new social forces and in emphasizing the new social responsibilities. His addresses to the students on Sunday afternoons, together with his work in the classroom, were among the most important influences in my early life. It was his teaching, iterated and reiterated, of the obligation of both the university and the students to the mother State that may be said to have originated the Wisconsin idea in education. He was forever telling us

what the State was doing for us, and urging our return obligation not to use our education wholly for our own selfish benefit, but to return some service to the State. That teaching animated and inspired hundreds of students who sat under John Bascom. The present president of the university, Charles R. Van Hise, a classmate of mine, was one of the men who has nobly handed down the tradition and continued the teaching of John Bascom.

In those days we did not so much get correct political and economic views, for there was then little teaching of sociology or political economy worthy the name, but what we somehow did get, and largely from Bascom, was a *proper attitude toward public affairs*. And when all is said, this attitude is more important than any definite views a man may hold. Years afterward when I was Governor of Wisconsin, John Bascom came to visit us at the executive residence in Madison, and I treasure the words he said to me about my new work:

"Robert," he said, "you will doubtless make mistakes of judgment as governor, but never mind the political mistakes so long as you make no ethical mistakes."

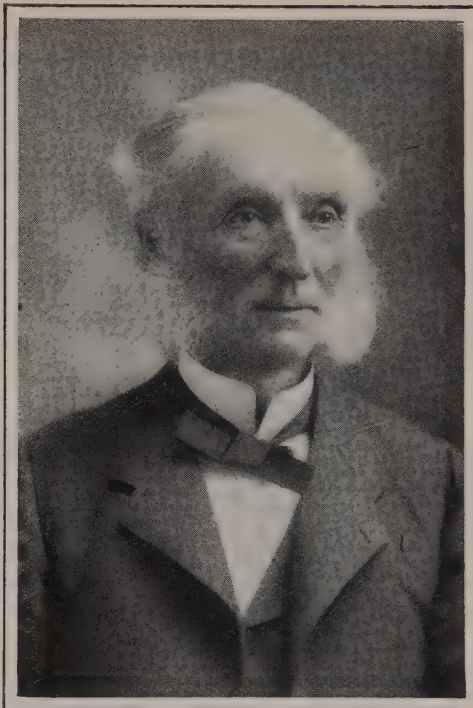
In a high sense the university has been the repository of progressive ideas: it has always enjoyed both free thought and free speech. When the test came years ago the university met it boldly where some other institutions faltered or failed. The declaration of freedom was made by the Board of Regents in 1894, when Dr. Richard T. Ely was tried for economic heresy:

"We cannot for a moment believe that knowledge has reached its final goal or that the present constitution of society is perfect. . . . In all lines of investigation . . . the investigator should be absolutely free to follow the paths of truth wherever they may lead. Whatever may be the limitations which trammel inquiry elsewhere, we believe the great State of Wisconsin should ever encourage that continual and fearless sifting and winnowing by which alone the truth can be found."

This declaration of freedom was framed by Herbert W. Chynoweth, then a member of the board, now deceased, and it was incorporated as a plank in the last Republican State platform as a pledge of the party to sustain the academic freedom of the university. It has also been inscribed on a monument erected by a recent graduating class.

It is not indeed surprising that Dr. Eliot of Harvard, after an examination of the work done at Madison, should have called Wisconsin "the leading State university," for in every possible way it has endeavored to make itself a great democratic institution—a place of free thought, free investigation, free speech, and of constant and unremitting service to the people who give it life.

While Mr. La Follette was governor, it is well known that he sought the advice and service of the trained men of the institution in solving the problems that confronted the State administration. He made it his policy, "in order to bring all the reserves of knowledge and inspiration of the university more fully to the service of the people," to appoint experts from the university staff upon the important boards and commissions of the State, and from this relationship the State,



THE LATE DR. JOHN BASCOM

(To whose influence, while president of the University of Wisconsin, Senator La Follette ascribes much credit for the development of "the Wisconsin idea" of the university's obligation to the State)

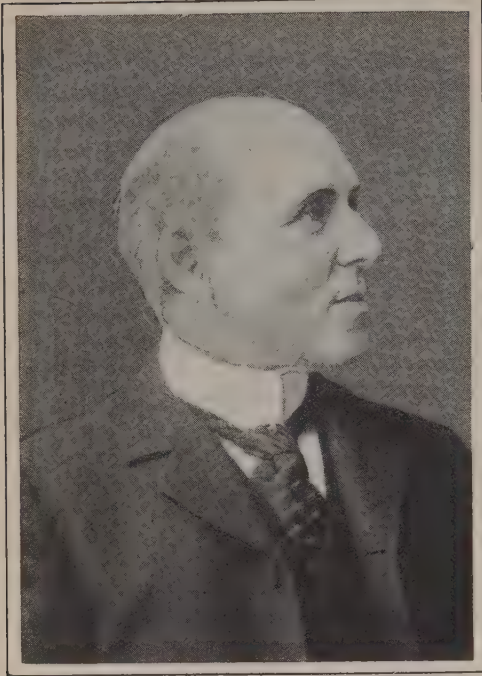
in Senator La Follette's opinion, has greatly profited.

Many of the university staff are now in State service, and a bureau of information and assistance established as a legislative reference library, conducted by Charles McCarthy, a man of marked originality and power, has proved of the greatest assistance to the legislature in formulating new laws and in learning the true attitude of public opinion toward them. He has built up an institution in Wisconsin that is a model which the Federal Government and ultimately every State in the Union will follow.

During the last session of the legislature a Saturday lunch club was organized, at which the governor and some of the State officers and legislators regularly met the university professors—Van Hise, Ross, Reinsch, Commons, Ely, Scott, Meyer, McCarthy and others—to discuss the problems of the State. Such meetings as these are a tremendous force in bringing about intelligent democratic government: they are very different, indeed, from the old secret, back-room conferences of bosses which once controlled Wisconsin in the interest of private corporations.

During his terms as governor Mr. La Follette appointed alumni of the university on the Board of Regents and for the first time in the history of Wisconsin appointed a woman member of that body.

HOWARD PYLE, ARTIST-AUTHOR



THE LATE HOWARD PYLE

THE American illustrator, Howard Pyle, died suddenly at Florence, Italy, on November 9. For more than thirty years he had held a foremost place in that group of black-and-white artists which had built up a distinctly American school of illustration, giving to the United States a marked pre-eminence in that branch of art. Throughout his career he was a disbeliever in the advantages of foreign residence and training for artists, and it was only recently that he visited Europe himself for the first time. He was born at Wilmington, Del., in 1853, and there he passed most of his life.

Commenting on Mr. Pyle's belief in America, Miss Jessie Trimble said in the *Outlook* (February 23, 1907):

He does not urge his pupils to go abroad. And in the purest American environment he has changed for the better the illustrating of scores of young men and women in the United States. Certainly one-half of the notably successful illustrators of America have studied with Howard Pyle. And he has helped them through the application of methods universal in their profoundly simple teaching, that life—one's own conception of life—must be the inspiration of all work. That conception the artist carries ever with him, having no need to go abroad to find it.

Mr. Pyle is an American educator. He educates the view-point. He helps his pupils to find

themselves, to "see straight." It is this passion for seeing straight, for honest art, no affectation, no sham, that makes different from so much instruction the whole spirit of Mr. Pyle's teaching. It is no wonder that modern illustration, including such strictly commercial work as advertisement drawing, useful certainly, and capable of the finest treatment, appeals to Mr. Pyle as the unassuming foundation on which may be erected a "school" of American art.

There is, however, an important qualification. Illustration, in Mr. Pyle's opinion, deserves this high place only when it aims to approach the merit of the finished painting. If Mr. Pyle has revolutionized our drawing, he has done so by holding out constantly this ideal, not only in his teaching but in his own work. Magazine readers will remember the attention given his pen-and-ink drawings some twenty years ago when he was illustrating those delightful stories he used to write for young people. His simple, decorative pen-and-ink sketches were for a while almost without imitators, the crowd clinging to the fussy, careful drawings now scarcely ever seen. Those illustrations were indeed as perfect in their way as are Mr. Pyle's paintings.

Pyle first attracted attention by a holiday book, illustrated in color, "The Lady of Shalott" (Dodd, Mead, 1881). This was conspicuous for its artistic quality among the crude picture-books of the time, as were the charming children's books of Walter Crane, Caldecott, and Kate Greenaway in England a few years previous.

This book was printed in 1881 by the Brett Lithographic Company. One copy printed on satin, with the original illustrations bound in, was recently bought at the Hoe sale for \$1100.

His "Robin Hood," 1883, with the drawings executed more or less in the old woodcut style of Dürer, further established his reputation as an illustrator who loved his art and who wanted the picture-book to be an artistic unit. Indeed this unity was achieved here to a high degree, for the artist was author of the book as well.

And after this almost every season a book from his pen, with his own illustrations, was published, a few of which were: "Pepper and Salt," 1885; "Within the Capes," 1885; "The Wonder Clock," 1887; "The Rose of Paradise," 1887; "Otto of the Silver Hand," 1888; "A Modern Aladdin," 1891; "Men of Iron," 1891; "Jack Ballister's Fortune," 1894; "Twilight Land," 1895; "The Garden Behind the Moon," 1895; "Semper Idem," 1903; "The Story of King Arthur and His Knights," 1903; "The Story of the Champions of the Round Table," 1905; "The Story of Launcelot and His Companions," 1907.

NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Changes in Banking Business

APPROXIMATELY one-third the cash and credit of the nation—\$6,000,000,000 or more—is held in 12,000 institutions not regulated through the bank examiners from Washington. Such "State" banks and trust companies have in many sections an entire monopoly. It is important, therefore, to study the method of dealing with these "State" institutions recommended in a "revised edition" of the monetary legislation plan which appeared last month.

It is proposed that the privileges of the Reserve Association, whose principal functions have previously been outlined in these notes, may be extended to State banks and trust companies, provided they conform to the same standards of banking as those now required to be maintained by National institutions. Each must, for example, have a capital not less than that required for a national bank, must maintain the same reserves against deposits and in addition agree to submit to the customary examinations and to make the required reports.

A second important change that has been made in the plan as it was submitted for discussion early in the year concerns the disposal of \$700,000,000 two per cent. Government bonds—nearly all there are. These are now owned by the National banks, and are being used as security for their bank-note circulation. The problem to be solved in this connection was: How to do away eventually with the present bond-secured and inelastic currency, and substitute for it a circulation based upon business men's notes and other credit instruments, without the risk of a great depreciation of the market value of the bonds, or else of a \$7,000,000 additional interest burden on the Government should the two per cents be refunded into threes. It has been estimated that a two per cent. bond without the "circulation privilege" would not command much more than 85 in the market.

The solution now proposed is that the Reserve Association shall gradually take these bonds off the hands of the National banks. It will pay the banks in its own notes—the new currency. It in turn will receive from the Government dollar for dollar in three per

cents to be sold as opportunity offers, but only on condition that the Association pay to the Government annually a "franchise tax" of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the par value of all bonds taken from the banks.

There are other minor changes, among which might be mentioned a provision which it is believed will remove all possibility of local or special control of the Association.

The complete suggestion in this connection is that the Association's board of directors shall have forty-five members, of whom three are to be Government representatives—the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Commerce, and the Comptroller of the Currency. Then there are to be a governor and two deputy governors, the former appointed by the President of the United States; and finally, thirty-nine regularly elected directors, not more than three of which can come from any one of the fifteen district branches of the Association. These will represent the banking, industrial, and business interests of the entire country. In outlining this plan of organization the currency reformers have kept clearly in mind the European experience with different banking systems and have tried to avoid their faults; yet retain all features which could be most suitably adapted to the peculiar requirements of our own country.

Currency Reform and Real Estate

ON a first attempt to read the "Pilgrim's Progress," Huckleberry Finn decided that "the statements was interesting but tough."

Few items in the morning papers are more important to the average citizen—and less digested by him—than the column or so of figures and hard language headed "Currency Reform News."

For instance, last month, at the end of a paragraph which opened on a different subject, sandwiched in the middle of an able but highly technical exposition of proposed changes in the "Aldrich Plan" for new currency legislation, could be found a clause to enable national banks to lend as much as 40 per cent. of their separate "savings" deposits on real estate.

Every farmer, real estate owner or dealer, and every regular saver from salary or wages is directly interested in this clause and will be benefited, if it is adopted by the National Monetary Commission and made a law by Congress.

That would mean two-fifths of \$500,000,000 set free to encourage enterprising farmers, ambitious home-owners and folks active in real estate. And it would mean—in proportion as the money of those who save through national bank “departments” came actually to be secured by well-chosen real estate—an added safeguard, or a means of obtaining a high interest with equal prudence.

Such practical blessings would illustrate, more clearly than the abstract discussions now available, the advantage of any up-to-date currency system, such as other great nations enjoy, over the present inelastic bond-secured notes issued by individual national banks. These are now forbidden to include real estate among their assets. The prohibition should continue, as Congress has repeatedly decided, as long as a bank’s “money” represents merely its own individual transactions.

An Innovation in Reorganization Methods

DESPITE the fact that there are so many security dealers nowadays who recognize a code of ethics for the conduct of their business sufficiently well defined to leave little to be desired in the way of investors’ protection, it is always a pleasure to be able to record new ways in which that recognition manifests itself from time to time.

The latest in this connection is a recently reported movement among bankers interested in a big public utility enterprise in a Western city, that failed some time ago and is now undergoing reorganization, to form a syndicate to provide funds with which to pay the assessments, which it is proposed to levy on the company’s stock and bonds, for those holders who are not able to make the payments themselves.

The situation which these bankers are making ready to face is typical of perhaps a majority of receiverships and reorganizations of corporations with securities widely distributed to the public. Somebody’s judgment goes wrong in such cases. Shattered are the hopes for success which may have been honestly entertained at the time the enterprise was financed. It becomes necessary for the courts to take the business of

the company out of the hands of the owners and to conduct it “for the benefit of the creditors”; committees are formed to look after the interests of the original investors and to save for them as much of the assets as may be possible under the circumstances; and finally, to add to the confusion of an always considerable number of security-holders unable to comprehend the complicated details of such things, emerges the reorganization plan with its call for more money to “rehabilitate” the company.

Bankers who undertake the tasks of carrying out such plans usually find that they have to deal with three classes of investors: those whose experience has taught them how to analyze, who are, therefore, quick to see whatever possibilities of success reorganization may hold out, and who are financially able to pay their assessments promptly; those who, even though financially able to respond, hesitate for fear that to do so would mean to send good money after bad; and those who, in any event, are unable to add to their investment at the time and who, therefore, face the danger of being shut out from participating in the ultimate benefits which any properly conceived reorganization plan might be expected to bring. The last class is the one upon which most of the real losses fall, with the all too frequent result that the faith of its members in investments generally is badly shaken, if not destroyed entirely. It is a class toward which it is not recorded that any such commendable spirit was ever before shown in a like connection as that which has apparently prompted the formation of the syndicate referred to.

The bankers who are figuring in this incident are manifestly not looking so much to the question of direct financial reward as they are to the improvement of an excellent opportunity to increase confidence—the kind that is essential to the creation of a larger and more resourceful “investing public.”

Safeguarding the Investor by Law

THAT the protection of investors cannot be left entirely to such security bankers as recognize the gravity of the responsibility they assume when they sell stocks and bonds to an inexperienced public, or to the newspapers and magazines which have accomplished so much good in exposing the schemes of unscrupulous promoters and “bucket-shop” proprietors, is everywhere conceded. The question is one with which, as many bankers believe, State or national legislation

will sooner or later have to deal in a comprehensive way.

Readers of these notes will recall that Kansas made a beginning along these lines early in the year by enacting a law for the regulation of "investment companies." This, Bank Commissioner Dolley writes this magazine, is driving out the fraudulent concerns. It bids fair to save for the people of the State all of the \$4,000,000 to \$6,000,000 which he estimates has been "invested" in worthless paper each year. Many authorities regard it as doubtful that the Kansas law can safely be taken as a model for whatever legislation with similar aims may be undertaken elsewhere within the next year or so. Still, it has served the purpose of bringing about a clearer understanding of the attitude which conservative investment bankers take toward their clients. A banker of the highest standing asked not long since by the Investment Bureau of this magazine for an expression of his views on the Kansas law, was disposed to criticise it in a constructive way, but made a point which will be of no little interest to every purchaser of stocks and bonds.

He pictured a prospective investor reading through a descriptive circular of "offerings" and pausing to wonder what might be the significance of the phrase, usually found at the end of all such circulars, to the effect that the information contained therein "is not guaranteed, but is based on sources which are considered reliable." Manifestly, that phrase is intended to assure the investor that the securities described have been purchased by the bankers themselves only after the most painstaking investigation and that, therefore, there can be little, if any, doubt as to their merits. Where it is used by dealers of unimpeachable reputations it undoubtedly does afford the protection it implies.

But the banker referred to asks whether the phrase in question, as it is commonly used, does not offer too many loopholes of escape for the unscrupulous dealer. He suggests that investors might be given about all the protection they require by the passage of a law requiring dealers in stocks and bonds, not only to certify to the truth of all statements about their offerings, but to set forth clearly the authority upon which the statements are based. A requirement of that kind, it is believed, would serve at least to take the alluring color from a large part of the literature of questionable promotion schemes with which the country is being flooded every year. It would place at the investor's immediate command more of the

facts that are essential to his own determination of what is safe for him to buy.

Encouragement for the Railroads

A YEAR or so ago, investors could hardly have imagined such views as the following from the governors of certain of our Western States who were then vying with one another in demanding legislation of the most extreme nature for the "regulation" of the railroads: "We can afford to take a rest from additional and untried laws and legislative theories."

"Capital is not going to flow readily into a state where uncertainties exist as to the conditions under which it may be invested and handled."

"Be careful not to enact harsh and retaliatory measures affecting the railroad or other large business interests of the State."

Yet these declarations are typical of a large number made to the Railway Business Association, and published recently in a bulletin which is full of timely encouragement.

Concrete evidence of the remarkable change of heart on the part of all state executives and lawmakers, in dealing with the railroad problem, is furnished by the Association's figures relating to the number of laws dealing directly with the transportation companies that have been passed during the current year. They show 276 separate bills enacted by 40 legislatures, as against 664 enacted by 41 legislatures in 1909—a decrease of 58 per cent. The bulletin adds significantly, "the states which have been pioneers in regulation seem to have nearly or quite given up the quest for further restrictions, and are now evincing anxiety to attract capital for the development of transportation and business."

Railroad men have made no secret of the fact that their inability, during the last two or three years, to make their properties show the satisfactory earnings that investors have been accustomed to expect, and to sell securities in sufficient amounts to enable them to carry out their plans for reconstruction and extensions, have been due in no slight degree to the multiplicity of new restrictive laws. A new era seems about to be entered upon. Capital is wary of industrial enterprise just now, in these troublous times for "trusts," and will undoubtedly welcome a means of employment where the risk of disturbance by Government prosecution is least.

The latest estimates of the needs of the country's railroads for new construction

places the amount at \$800,000,000 yearly for the next three years. The prospects of their getting it are brighter than they have been in many months.

Steel Stocks and Bonds

FOLKS statistically inclined have been busy lately trying to figure out where the holders of "Steel common and preferred" will stand in case the Government happens to win its suit against the corporation and compels it to dissolve.

Thus far, if there is one thing more than another which the arithmetic of these folks has served to demonstrate beyond reasonable doubt, it is that the numerous public library trustees whose institutions, endowed with the bonds of the corporation which Mr. Carnegie insisted upon getting instead of stock when he sold out his steel business to the billion-dollar combine, have no cause to fear for the safety of their trusts. Indeed, none of the analytical experts appear to have considered it worth while to give thought to any of the Steel Corporation's bonds—and there are about \$595,000,000 of them all told. They assert with nonchalance: "It is needless to say that even if the worst should happen the bondholders could all be paid at par."

But the figures in the case serve to emphasize something else of a good deal of importance to the investor in stocks—the ever-present mystery of an industrial corporation's balance sheet. There is no quarrel even with the Steel Corporation's most ardent supporters in Wall Street, to whom it is comparatively easy to trace the "inspiration" that induced investors to pay extravagant prices for the shares on more than one occasion in the past, for having given much, if any, undue weight, in their calculations of investment values, to such an intangible thing, for instance, as "good-will," against which investors are so frequently warned. The mysteries in this instance are chiefly concerned with the corporation's mines, whose

hidden treasures, it is obvious, are not within the power of any man to appraise with accuracy.

Back in 1909, when the common stock of the Steel Corporation was selling in the market at nearly \$95 a share, and the preferred at \$131 was being acclaimed a prime investment issue, suitable for "widows and orphans," the argument of the optimists had for its premise the corporation's own valuation of its iron ore holdings—more than \$640,000,000, or nearly half the entire amount of its outstanding stocks, bonds and mortgages. Starting with that valuation, it was easy for the statisticians to adduce a value of \$150 a share for Steel common, by which they implied that the tangible assets were greater by over \$250,000,000 than the entire capitalization. But what of the more recent valuation of these iron ore holdings made by Government experts for the Bureau of Corporations? These say the ore properties are worth only \$134,000,000, including some \$34,000,000 which the corporation's reports show has been spent for development work and so on. As many well-informed people believe, that figure may be far too low. But it is, nevertheless, no easy task for any one to explain the discrepancy of so much as \$500,000,000 between it and the Steel Corporation's own estimate.

In addition to \$134,000,000 worth of ore, the Government officials say the Steel Corporation has \$1,052,982,038 of other tangible property—\$1,186,982,038 in all. That is about \$281,000,000 less than its outstanding capitalization. If it were to be distributed among the creditors and shareholders it would suffice to cover all of the bonds, mortgages and preferred stock at par and leave about \$45 for each share of the common stock, instead of \$150, if the figures of the optimists were to be accepted.

Thus do opinions differ on the question of the valuation of "equities" for industrial stocks. And "equities" sometimes figure prominently in the making of market prices.



EVERYMAN'S LIBRARY

A DEMOCRATIC EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

IT is only in recent times, for not much more than a century, that the world has known what might properly be termed popular education. And it is only in our own day that this principle has reached tangible embodiment, observable not only in its efforts but in its results. If to-day we feel as if the world were moving with increased speed; if hopes that once were deemed forlorn now seem on the verge of materialization, it is because knowledge, going beyond the pressing needs and petty interests of the immediate moment, has ceased to be a mere luxury or plaything for a few fortunate ones, and has instead become a staff of strength in the hands of the less fortunate many.

The main cornerstone of popular education is, and must always be, the free public school. The position of the school is, of course, fundamental. But its influence is sharply limited in time and scope. If that influence be not extended beyond the days of childhood, the seeds then sown must largely go to waste. It must be supplemented by continued home study throughout life, and for this purpose books, not universities, must be used. Nor can the needed books be drawn solely from libraries when, as in London, nearly seven million people are crowded into a single city, or when, as here, a single nation boasts a population of more than ninety millions. And we must also consider that the mode of living imposed by modern urban conditions too often makes it necessary that the student use odds and ends of time, on cars and in waiting rooms, if he is to get any chance for reading at all. These are the main factors that have combined in producing an imperative demand for good books at low prices in handy and durable form.

The meeting of this demand constitutes one of the great problems of present-day democracy. For while the privileged few rule, the ignorance of the many may seem comparatively harmless, but with the passing of the rule into the hands of the unprivileged many, the systematic spreading of knowledge to every unit of the social group becomes a pressing need, lest chaos ensue. With increasing frequency the cry for cheap books of good quality has been raised as mankind has forged onward to greater and greater measure of individual freedom. Fortunately the very conditions creating this problem tended also to provide the means of its solution. For with the creation of bodies of readers more numerous than the world had ever beheld before came the basis required for the right kind of books—books that would have to be sold in enormous quantities in order that they might repay the work spent on their production.

"EVERYMAN'S LIBRARY" APPEARS

In this as in every other line of human development, a psychological moment was bound to occur when what had until then seemed impossible, all at once became not only possible but in-

evitable. It was just such a moment which J. M. Dent & Co., of London, and E. P. Dutton & Co., of New York, seized when they conceived the idea of publishing that wonderful series of books which has become world-famed under its collective title of Everyman's Library. This series represents, of course, a frank business venture, from which its inaugurators expect proper returns. But if it were no more, there would be no reason for speaking of it here. Nor would such a reason exist if that venture had not passed beyond the state of still doubtful experimentation.

But as it stands to-day, with its splendid selection of nearly 600 volumes covering every field of human thought and achievement, and with its record of success said to imply an aggregate sale of many million copies, Everyman's Library has richly earned the right to full and free recognition of its actual character of a great democratic educational institution. As such, and considering it not only by itself, but as the prototype of an inevitable brood of more or less successful imitators, it promises to furnish that complement to the public school without which popular education must, on the whole, remain a mere ideal.

Only six years have passed since the first fifty volumes were put into the market with the avowed purpose of giving the publishers a chance to see "what was going to happen." They did not have to wonder long. The response on the part of the public was so immediate and so decisive that no further reason remained for withholding definite announcements of a series meant ultimately to include not less than one thousand volumes. Since then the issuing of from fifty to one hundred volumes a year has continued, until now nearly three-fifths of the planned total have become available.

THREE CAUSES OF ITS SUCCESS

Three principal factors seem to have determined the unexampled success of this venture: first, the reasonable, uniform price; second, the attractive equipment; third, the wise choice of titles. From the first the books have been offered in two bindings, leather and cloth. The price of the leather-bound volumes has never been changed. But when the library had been in existence about two years, the joint publishers had the insight and courage to reduce the price of the cloth-bound volumes from fifty to thirty-five cents. It was this final master-stroke which gave to Everyman's Library its present unique position.

Not as if it represented the first attempt at giving the English-speaking nations good reading in cheap form. Many such efforts have been made, and some have proved both laudable and successful. But to understand the distinction between Everyman's Library and previous ventures of similar character, it is necessary to bear in mind the combination of desirable qualities represented by the former. In regard to clearness of print,

quality of paper, solidity and attractiveness of binding, and the amount of reading contained in each volume, as well as the character of that reading, these books have no peers at the price charged for them.

In what measure the credit for making the library what it is to-day should be distributed between the publishers and the general editor, Mr. Ernest Rhys, I am not in a position to tell. But it is perfectly plain even to an outsider that Mr. Rhys has proved the ideal man for his responsible position. Not the least proof of his fitness is derivable from the unusual spirit of coöperation which, from a very early juncture, has existed between the editor and the public.

POPULARITY ALREADY SECURE

There is a steady stream of letters, full of praise or criticism, of suggestions or requests, flowing into the London and New York offices from every corner of the globe. Those that write them represent every class and age and type and occupation. Some are rich and some are poor. Some aim at owning every one of the promised 1,000 volumes. Others dream of possessing some one treasured volume now hopelessly out of reach. But let those letters speak for themselves through one written by a Nebraska farmer:

"I watch eagerly the new lists as they come out to see if there are any I am interested in. Now here are some that I keep hoping to see,—Memoirs written by those who lived during colonial times and the Revolution and the War of 1812 from both sides. Seems to me that good, interesting Memoirs make the dead past live again, and of our own early history they are hard to buy. Also a good complete biography of Washington Irving, and of Agassiz, say by Marco. Now don't take this letter too seriously. I am a farmer in the West who is making a living raising alfalfa and corn. That is my business and reading is my past-time."

The books mentioned in this letter cannot fail to cause surprise—and yet it is that very kind of books that have been called for in most of the letters with perplexing but pleasing unanimity. And it is the same kind of books that have proved the "best sellers" in a series almost wholly free from poor ones. Of course, as might be expected, novels like those of Dickens, Scott, George Eliot, Stevenson, Dumas, Hugo, have sold in vast quantities. But they have not topped the list. While waiting for an order in a widely patronized book store that sells thousands of Everyman volumes a year, I asked the clerk what particular volumes in that series had proved more popular than all the rest. And without a moment's hesitation he replied:

"Benvenuto Cellini's 'Memoirs' and the dramas of Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides."

From the publishers themselves I have obtained certain other titles that have met with a success no less remarkable than unexpected: Plato's "Socratic Dialogues"; Brooke's "Theology in the English Poets"; More's "Utopia"; Boswell's "Life of Johnson"; Trotter's "Hodson of Hodson's Horse"; Coleridge's "Biographia Literaria"; Machiavelli's "The Prince"; Marlowe's "Plays"; Malory's "Morte d'Arthur"; Butler's "Analogy of Religion"; The Koran; The Ramayana and Mahabharata; the Kalevala; Robertson's and Latimer's sermons.

When a first volume of Ibsen plays in new translations was included, such a clamor for more of the same kind arose that a second volume had to be provided for at once. It is by thus listening to and judiciously obeying the "voice of the people" that Mr. Rhys and the men associated with him have been able to achieve the feat of having each new set of volumes proclaimed more interesting and more satisfactory than the preceding ones. And it is in this coöperation between editor, reader and publisher that I see one of the surest guarantees that Everyman's Library, when its first thousand volumes are ready, will represent a selection such as has never before been issued under similar circumstances—not even in Germany's renowned Reclam Library.

THE SPECIAL MERITS OF "EVERYMAN" BOOKS

To understand the instructive value of the Everyman books, it is necessary to bear well in mind that to their main contents are invariably added certain features tending to place them wholly outside the ordinary run of cheap editions. Practically every separate work is equipped with especially provided introductions and exhaustive bibliographies; and to these are frequently added indices, glossaries and notes of highly valuable nature. Let me use a recent volume—Oliphant Smeaton's new "Life of Shakespeare"—for illustration. This book serves first of all to dispel the notion that the library contains nothing but reprints. It is, on the contrary, one of numerous works written or prepared exclusively for this series. Besides the splendidly arranged material in the main body of the work, there is a set of tables giving the results of the metrical tests applied to Shakespeare's plays; a five-page, classified list of books "useful to the student of Shakespeare," and an index which, among other things, will serve as a directory of the chief characters appearing in the plays.

The introductions are significant in themselves because of their informative value. They have been furnished by men and women standing for the highest expert knowledge in the field to be covered. And in addition many of these men and women have attained not only scholarly but artistic fame. In proof I may mention the names of Swinburne, Arthur Symonds, Andrew Lang, George Saintsbury, Theodore Watts-Dunton, Vicomte de Vogüé, Sir Leslie Stephen and Professor J. E. Thorold Rogers.

But of almost greater significance is the fact that the introductions fall naturally into certain groups and series, each one of which offers excellent chances for a course of systematic reading along some particular line. Thus, the introductions found in the twelve volumes devoted to the English drama take the reader along an unbroken course of dramatic development from the primitive miracle plays up to the sparkling comedies of Sheridan and the literary dramas of Browning.

HOW THE BOOKS ARE CLASSIFIED

The library is divided into thirteen departments. Together these departments are designed to cover every branch of informative and imaginative literature. A good idea of the present scope and future possibilities of the collection may be obtained from a classification of the first 560 volumes. They distribute themselves as following under their respective heads: biography, 38; classical literature, 23; essays and belles lettres, 68;

fiction, 174; history, 60; oratory 6; philosophy and theology, 31; poetry and drama, 45; reference, 7; romance, 17; science, 12; travel, 28; books for young people, 51. An analysis along other lines shows, as might be expected, that English literature predominates in every field, but there is a sufficiency of evidence to prove beyond all doubt that nothing less than a presentation of the whole world's enduring literature is embraced in the general plan. And even now the international character of the collection is strongly marked, while, at the same time, it tends to cover all the ages from Homer and Plato to Spencer and Ibsen.

Fiction furnishes the most numerous department. But it would be worse than injustice to think it designed for amusement only. By wise selection from the volumes included in this department, it will be possible to study the growth of the English novel—and incidentally of English manners and English thought—from the days of Fielding to those of our own. Most of the English classics in this field are already published. At present the library is being extended so as to cover the best produced by France, Russia and Germany. Thus the latest set issued contains representative novels by Tolstoy, Turgenev and Dostoyevsky—the three giants of Russian literature. A majority of the greatest English poets and dramatists have already been issued, and among these Byron, whose works the humbler bibliophile has always had difficulty in obtaining complete. The English and American essay may also be studied from its earliest to its latest specimens by means of the Everyman volumes. This department is particularly tempting, with its exquisite Spectator set in four volumes, its three volumes of all the best Emerson has given us in prose, and its list of such noble names as Arnold, Bacon, Carlyle, Coleridge, De Quincey, Froude, Hazlitt, Lamb, Macaulay and Ruskin.

Nor is the opportunity for searching study of English literature confined to a reading of originals. Books about books have also been chosen with the same fine tact that stands evidenced in every branch of the library. There are, to mention some especially conspicuous examples, Craik's "Manual of English Literature," Gilfillan's "Literary Portraits," De Quincey's "Reminiscences of the Lake Poets," and—last but not least—a tidbit too long kept out of reach of all lovers of good criticism—two volumes of Bagehot's "Literary Studies." But even more valuable than all these for the purpose indicated I count the "Short Biographical Dictionary of English Literature" prepared expressly for Everyman's Library by John W. Cousin. Time and again I have been pleasantly surprised by the amount of accurate and pertinent information stored away in this single volume of 450 plainly printed pages.

On turning to history, the surveyor is struck by the large number of far-famed works that have here for the first time been made accessible to the man without much money or time to spare. There is, for instance, Finlay's "History of the Byzantine Empire," which made Arnold Bennett send a rush order to his bookdealer the moment he read the announcement of the first fifty volumes. There is Mommsen's great "Roman History"—complete in four volumes—at the ridiculously cheap price of \$1.40. And there are the equally, or almost equally, famous works of men like

Froude, Gibbon, Grote, Macaulay, Merivale, Milman, Motley, Parkman, Prescott and Thierry.

The twelve volumes of Grote's fundamental "History of Greece" bring to my mind a consideration not to be overlooked. The motto of the library might be: "one book at the time." Any volume may be bought by itself. No set has to be bought complete. Volumes lost out of sets may be replaced at their original price. It is possible to have a taste of Grote or Gibbon, of Dickens or Scott, without committing oneself to a single additional volume. I know that this has tempted more than one man into making a habit of the weekly purchase of an Everyman volume. And it has helped "to make book buyers of people who never bought books before."

The department of philosophy and theology indicates that, eventually, the library will include the bibles of all the leading races and religions. In this category I should like to place mythological epics like the Indian "Ramayana and Mahabharata," the Finnish "Kalevala," the Germanic "Song of the Nibelungs" (in a splendid prose version), and the Greek "Iliad" and "Odyssey." It seems to me that this group offers an exciting chance of tracing the parallel development of the human mind in different ages and climes, from its first cosmic dreams to its final conviction of a uniting force behind the harmonious evolution of all being.

In the same way every department presents its special claim to the attention of the student and the booklover. All offer works that so far have been more or less inaccessible to the man with a slender purse. Thus, under the head of travel, we find works like Lane's "Modern Egyptians" and Dennis' "Cities and Cemeteries of Etruria." Among classical works the eye instinctively picks out Rawlinson's monumental translation of Herodotus. And under the head of science we cannot fail to notice Galton's fascinating "Inquiries into the Human Faculty." In the reference department, added to the library as an afterthought, we meet with an unusually helpful "Dictionary of Dates" and some atlases that foreshadow a new era in this line of publishing. And finally I may add, for the benefit of those who have learned by painful experience how much more difficult it is to pick good books for children than for adults, that the volumes dedicated to "young people" present the best and most varied collection of such works that has come under my personal observation.

AN INSTRUMENT FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT

What I have tried to prove by this superficial survey is that Everyman's Library embodies an instrument for self-development such as never before has existed in the English tongue. And as such it cannot fail to become a factor of tremendous importance in the universal process of democratization now at work on this globe. The world's future has fallen into the hands of Everyman. The one way of insuring that future against disappointment and disaster lies in making Everyman as wise as he has become powerful. But wisdom grows out of personal and collective experience recalled at the moment of crucial decision—and books are the memory of the race. Therefore one may safely say that such as is the reading of Everyman such will be the future of the race.

NEW BOOKS OF BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE

ONE or two of the members of Lincoln's great "War Cabinet" never became very well known to their contemporaries. To the present generation these men are shadowy figures indeed—hardly more than names. Yet from one of them has come the only complete, detailed narrative of the events of the Lincoln administration that any member of that administration has given to the world.¹ Gideon Welles, Lincoln's Secretary of the Navy, was New England's representative in the cabinet throughout the Civil War. In a special sense, he was Lincoln's personal choice for the post that he held. He was an able administrator,—a fact that has somehow been strangely overlooked by most of the historians of the period. Each of the great trio of Secretaries,—Seward, Stanton, and Chase—had personal idiosyncrasies that either repelled or attracted their fellow men. Welles had few or none of these; he was even tempered, calm, reasonable at all times. In a sense of humor he was undoubtedly lacking. His judgment of his colleagues often seems to us harsh, if not positively unjust. Yet in a strikingly large number of instances his opinions of men and measures, formed in the heat of excitement, will be found to have been confirmed by the deliberate judgment of a later generation. We have never before had so intimate a revelation of the secret councils of the Government. There is abundant material here which no historian of the Civil War period can afford to overlook.

Mr. Welles remained in office throughout the administration of Andrew Johnson, and continued his diary during that period.

Senator Shelby M. Cullom, who is with us today, began his public life before the Civil War. His book, "Fifty Years of Public Service,"² contains his personal recollections of Presidents (from Lincoln to Taft), Governors, Senators, and Representatives who have figured in American political history during the past half-century. During his long service in Congress Senator Cullom has been

on terms of friendship with a remarkably large number of public men of both political parties. A staunch Republican, his friendship with eminent Democrats, both in and out of Congress, has been almost as intimate and enduring as his friendship with members of his own political faith. His judgments of men and policies are kindly and optimistic.

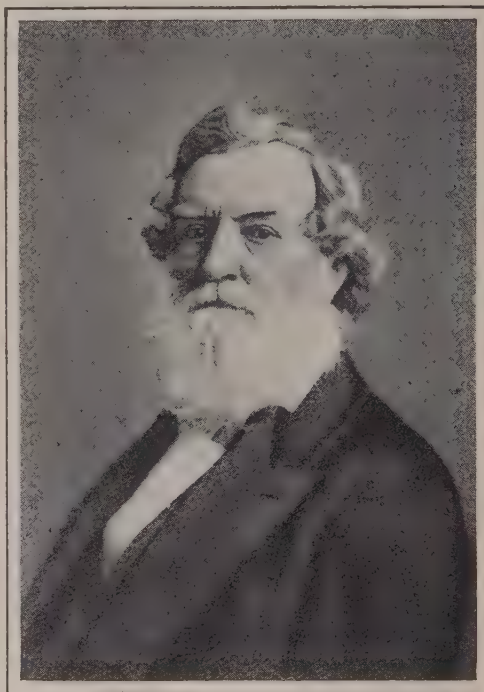
"Statesmen of the Old South"³ is the title of a group of essays by Professor William E. Dodd, of the University of Chicago. The three representative Southerners who form the subjects of these

essays are Thomas Jefferson, John C. Calhoun, and Jefferson Davis. Professor Dodd is a serious and painstaking student of the political development of the South, and his treatment of each of these typical Southern leaders is judicious as well as sympathetic. As the biographer of Jefferson Davis, Professor Dodd writes with special authority.

A volume of memoirs in a somewhat different field is that of General Nelson A. Miles, entitled "Serving the Republic."⁴ General Miles' career as a soldier, covering fifty years, has been full of exciting episodes. As a young volunteer General Miles took part in many of the battles of the Civil War and was four times wounded. Entering the regular military establishment at the close of the war, he rose to important commands in the Indian campaigns on the Western plains, and in the entire half-century of his military experience he has been a

shrewd observer of the conditions and limitations under which the American army is maintained.

The Socialist leader, Henry M. Hyndman, has written an entertaining "record of an adventurous life."⁵ Mr. Hyndman's connection with the spread of the Socialist propaganda in English-speaking countries constitutes him an authentic historian of the movement, while his observations in the British Colonies and in America during the '70's add much interest to his memoirs.



GIDEON WELLES

(From the autographed portrait used as frontispiece to
"The Diary of Gideon Welles")

¹ The Diary of Gideon Welles. Houghton Mifflin Co. 3 vols. 1872 pp., ill. \$10.

² Fifty Years of Public Service. By Shelby M. Cullom. A. C. McClurg & Co. 467 pp., ill. \$3.

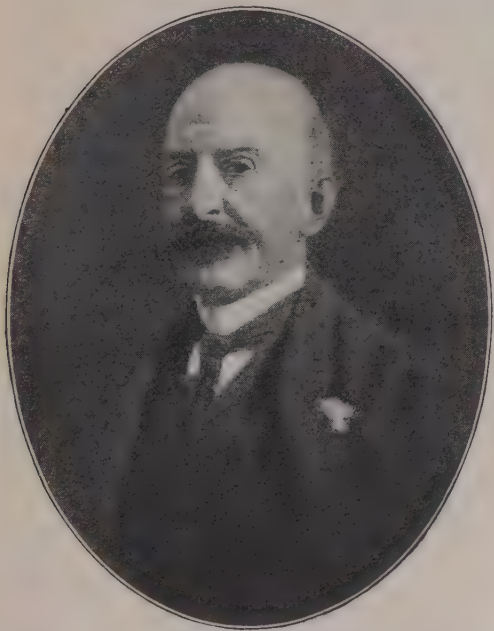
³ Statesmen of the Old South. By William E. Dodd. Macmillan. 242 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Serving the Republic. By General Nelson A. Miles. Harpers. 340 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ The Record of an Adventurous Life. By Henry M. Hyndman. Macmillan. 422 pp., por. \$1.75.

Selections from the letters and diaries of the late Dr. Moses Coit Tyler¹ have been made and edited by his daughter, Mrs. Jessica Tyler Austen. Professor Tyler is chiefly remembered as Professor of American History in Cornell University and the author of "The Literary History of the American Revolution." In his earlier years Dr. Tyler was successively a clergyman, a journalist, and a lecturer. In one way or another he came into contact and formed friendships with a large number of men and women well known in American and English literary history. Among these were Wendell Phillips, James Russell Lowell, Theodore Tilton, Matthew Arnold, Edmund Gosse, and William E. Gladstone. Dr. Tyler's impressions of these men, written without thought of publication, make this volume of selections from his correspondence and diaries one of the most interesting of its kind that the current season has produced.

The authorized biography of the late artist, Winslow Homer, comes to us under the title of "The Life and Works of Winslow Homer."² It is by William Howe Downes. The basis of Homer's art, says Mr. Downes, was simple truth. That was what made him universally popular and easily understood. This quality is brought out plainly and convincingly in the reproductions of Homer's paintings, which make up such a large and essential portion of a volume of this kind. There is a frontispiece portrait of Mr. Homer at the age of seventy-two, taken shortly before his death.



WINSLOW HOMER AT THE AGE OF SEVENTY-TWO

"The Letters of Sarah Orne Jewett"³ have been collected and published by Miss Jewett's life-long friend, Mrs. James T. Fields. They present an interesting picture of the life of the authoress and reveal much of the gentle, womanly wisdom that came to us in her book, "The Country of the



SARAH ORNE JEWETT

(From the frontispiece to the volume of her letters recently published)

Pointed Firs." There are bits of nonsense and winsome humor in many of the letters, and one can trace many similarities to Swift's "little language" in the journal to Stella. The book is illustrated with three portraits and one facsimile of a page of manuscript.

Two little books, recently issued, are tributes of love to the memory of Julia Ward Howe. The first: "Two Noble Lives," is by Laura E. Richards, daughter of Mrs. Howe, and is also a tribute to her father, Samuel Gridley Howe. While it is an adaptation of a former volume by Mrs. Richards, it has been largely rewritten. The other volume, by the youngest daughter, Maud, takes up the last few months of this famous woman's life. It is literally, as its title puts it, "The Eleventh Hour in the Life of Julia Ward Howe."⁴

The "Reminiscences of an Army Nurse During the Civil War,"⁵ by Adelaide W. Smith, who describes herself as an independent volunteer, tells the story of five years' helpful work in various hospitals during the conflict. The account is written with sentiment and sincerity. There are many pictures, and a full-page portrait of Lincoln.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE

Probably the most picturesque and dramatic achievement in Europe during the 19th century was the Risorgimento, or the struggle of the Italians to win liberty, independence, and unity. This great work was accomplished by the three men whose names are supreme in the Italian his-

¹ Moses Coit Tyler. Made and edited by Jessica Tyler Austen. Doubleday, Page & Co. 325 pp., ill. \$2.50.

² The Life and Works of Winslow Homer. By William Howe Downes. Houghton Mifflin Co. 306 pp., ill. \$6.

³ Letters of Sarah Orne Jewett. Mrs. James T. Fields. Houghton Mifflin Co. 260 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ The Eleventh Hour in the Life of Julia Ward Howe. By Maud Howe. Little, Brown & Co. 74 pp. 75 cents.

⁵ Reminiscences of an Army Nurse During the Civil War. By Adelaide W. Smith. Greaves Publishing Company. 263 pp., ill.



CAVOUR'S LAST PORTRAIT

tory of a generation—Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi, the statesman, the philosopher-agitator, and the soldier. Cavour probably shares with Bismarck the highest place among modern European nation-builders. Last summer the Italian people celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of their triumph in achieving unity. During the past few weeks they have taken the first steps in a career of imperialism, perhaps inevitable, but undreamed of by the founders of their state. In an absorbingly interesting biography, "The Life and Times of Cavour,"¹ in two volumes, William Roscoe Thayer tells not only the story of Cavour's life, but gives us the first full account, to date, of the Risorgimento. Except Lincoln, no statesman of the nineteenth century, it has been said, touches more closely the hearts of posterity than Cavour. Mr. Thayer, who is a specialist in Italian history, makes us see how it was the idea of Camillo Benso di Cavour that vitalized into the conception of a nation the policy of Piedmont, at that time the only one of the seven divided Italian states not under Austrian rule. Mr. Thayer treats Piedmont and

Italy as members of the European family of nations, and gives them their proper place in the diplomatic and political setting of the times. Cavour's ten-year struggle with the three enemies of the Italian liberal cause, the Austrians, the "Reds" and the "Blacks," is recounted with the vividness of the story of a military campaign. Particularly dramatic is Mr. Thayer's account of how it was Cavour, who, in 1859, despite all the wishes of Europe, forced Austria to declare war. We are made to see the personality of the man, his power in speech, his generous spirit, his lifelong consecration to his ideal of patriotism; his courage, his profound political wisdom, his ability as a parliamentarian, and his genius in handling men. In his work of unifying Italy, he came into contact with most of the famous men of the age. His biographer, in these volumes, gives us character studies as sidelights to the delineation of the master spirits of Victor Emmanuel II, Garibaldi, Mazzini, Pope Pius IX, Napoleon III, Queen Victoria, Gladstone, and many others. Cavour's entire life was devoted to the realization of his ideal of liberty, or, as he expressed it in his letter to Madame Circourt in 1860: "I am the son of liberty; to her I owe all that I am."

To Mr. Charles Holme, editor of the *Studio Magazine*, Mr. Walter Shaw Sparrow has dedicated his elaborate life and work of Mr. Frank Brangwyn.² This work is a biography and appreciation and an interpretation of Mr. Brangwyn's art that incidentally gives us an estimate of the art of his contemporaries. He belongs to the school of democratic art that crystallized around François Millet and Constantin Meunier; he peoples his canvases with figures that play their part symbolically in the thought he endeavors to express. More than any other, he has realized the picturesque values of phases of modern industrialism and realized the titanic beauty of modern machinery. The first impression of a Brangwyn picture is the sense of a tremendous difference between it and any other you have ever seen. Mr. Sparrow says, "Brangwyn's paintings kill their pictorial neighbors." The Spirit of Modern Commerce, a decorative panel on the wall of the Royal Exchange, illustrates this feeling of difference placed as it is in direct juxtaposition with the work of other mural artists. This volume is illustrated with reproductions in color, notably from the decorations in Skinner's Hall, London,

¹The Life and Times of Cavour. 2 vols. By William Roscoe Thayer. Houghton Mifflin Co. 1166 pp., ill. \$7.50.

²Frank Brangwyn: His Life and Work. By Walter Shaw Sparrow. Dana Estes Co. 268 pp. \$3.50.

and there are also sixteen colotype reproductions of his etchings and lithographs.

A comprehensive, appreciative biography of Bret Harte, with some account of the California pioneers of his day, has been written by Henry Childs Merwin.¹ This book sets Harte in his time, and shows how, despite criticism and denial, he did interpret and represent the life of the Forty-Niners on the Pacific coast. There is a gratifying freshness and fullness about this study of one of the most human and interesting American men of letters. Much has been written on the California pioneer of the gold-seeking days, but there has been nothing, we take it, quite so fresh and original in its treatment as the book we are discussing. The author pays tribute to Bret Harte's style as being so good that it is impossible to imagine that the events and scenes described could have been set forth differently—"such books as everybody would conceive that he might have written himself, and yet so good that nobody else could have alike." Bret Harte, says Mr. Merwin in his concluding paragraph, makes the reader feel that he is describing not simply a few men and women of nobility, but "a whole society, an epoch, of which he was himself a part; and this gives an element of distinction, even of immortality, to his stories. Had only one man died at Thermopylæ, the fact would have been remembered by the world, but it would have lost its chief significance. The death of three hundred made it a typical act of the Spartan people. The time will come when California, now strangely unappreciative of its own past, and of the writer who preserved it, will look back upon the Pioneers as the modern Greek looks back upon Sparta and Athens."

A "rattling" good story of adventure is General Funston's book "Memories of Two Wars."² The chapters of this book setting forth General Funston's Cuban and Philippine experiences, have been appearing in serial form in *Scribner's Magazine*. At the outset the reader is informed that he need not expect any discussions of military tactics or any personal views on "any phase of America's recent incursion into the realm of world politics." The book aims to be "nothing more than a contribution to the literature of adventure." General Funston writes with a graphic, stimulating style, and his pages are packed with anecdotes, description, and rapid, vivid character sketches of many of the men who had to do with the making of American history in Cuba and the Philippines with whom he came in contact. The book is divided into two parts, the first—somewhat less than half—being taken up with an account of his adventures in Cuba; the second, his experiences in the Philippine army of occupation. Particularly vivid and entertaining is his chapter devoted to the capture of Aguinaldo. The full-page illustrations by F. C. Yohn add much to the sustaining interest of the story.

The very idea of a new book about the Brownings seems superfluous. Miss Lilian Whiting, however, has really done a new thing in preparing a sort of complete dual biography: "The Brownings, Their Life and Art."³ She devoted the first part of the volume to the separate lives of the poets; then there are chapters on their meeting and courtship, others on their marriage, and final chapters on



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GENERAL FUNSTON AS HE APPEARS TO-DAY

the poet husband's life alone. The volume, which is illustrated, is written in Miss Whiting's characteristic vein.

It has been said of Goethe that he was a man of the "utmost possible lovingness." Very few, either men or women, who knew him, could resist the extraordinary personal magnetism of the great German; and this despite the fact that he was always so egoistic. Goethe's friendships with the famous women of his time have generally been stigmatized as merely illustrations of his bad morals and supreme selfishness. Of late years, however, there have been a number of keener students of his life and works, who have set themselves the task of proving that, judged by the moral standards of his own time, he was not only not a bad man, but (we quote the judgment of Mary Caroline Crawford, in her book, "Goethe and His Woman Friends")⁴ "an astonishingly good man." Miss Crawford skillfully pilots her way through the story of Goethe's loves and friendships with the other sex, which has always been a sort of literary puzzle. The various ladies whose charms influenced the great German author: Gretchen, Frederica, Charlotte, Lili, Baroness von Stein, Angelica Kauffmann, Christiane, Bettina von Arnim, and all the others, are marched past us and made to seem, after all, charming, sympathetic, and excusable. There is a very interesting chapter on Goethe's mother and sister. The pictures, of which there are nearly a hundred, have been collected mainly by the author herself.

Frederic Harrison, author, publicist, public man, positivist, philosopher, educator, political economist, and authority on jurisprudence, who is now

¹The Life of Bret Harte. By Henry C. Merwin. Houghton Mifflin Co. 362 pp., ill. \$3.

²Memories of Two Wars. By Frederick Funston. Scribner's. 451 pp., ill. \$3.

³The Brownings: Their Life and Art. By Lilian Whiting. Little, Brown & Co. 304 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴Goethe and His Woman Friends. By Mary Caroline Crawford. Little, Brown & Co. 452 pp., ill. \$3.



EDERIC HARRISON IN 1908
(His favorite portrait)

entering on the eighty-first year of his life, confesses that he has never been able to cure himself of the habit of putting down on paper what he thinks and what he sees. Retaining a clear memory of the events and habits of four reigns during a momentous epoch in English history, Mr. Harrison has come to regard himself "almost as among the ancestors of the young to-day." Therefore, he fancies, the modern world may care to hear what he remembers of the past, and what "he anticipates as the issue of the vast changes he has witnessed in life and in thought." He has just given us, in two volumes, his "Autobiographic Memoirs."¹ These volumes are crowded with personal experiences and observations of British history for sixty years, including a personal acquaintance with almost all the great minds of the Victorian age. Mr. Harrison believes, and expresses this belief reverently in his closing pages, that there is to be a new religious reformation, and that the ethical consciousness of mankind will continue to grow sensitive and loftier in its achievements—"even unto the perfect day."

Blücher is known chiefly to readers of English history and literature as the man who came to Wellington's aid at Waterloo. That he had a separate existence of his own, and performed other great deeds, seems to be a new thought. To do him the service of pointing out the independence of his character and his right to stand alone in worthy achievement in military annals, Dr. Ernest F. Henderson has written for the "Heroes of the Nation Series," the volume "Blücher and the Uprising of Prussia Against Napoleon."² Field Marshal Gebhard Leberecht von Blücher, in the

opinion of Dr. Henderson, was the "one progressive, inspiring element among the leaders of the allied armies from the year 1813 on."

Five more volumes have been added to the three already issued of the "Collected Works of Ambrose Bierce."³ These contain stories, poems, essays, epigrams, criticism, and specimens of all the different kinds of brilliant, scintillating literary work for which Mr. Bierce has such an overflowing capacity. It is now nearly half a century since Mr. Bierce began to make his vigorous, trenchant, and ironical contributions to the press of the far West. He has been an undoubted force in journalism of the kind which we can truly call literary. His most marked quality is originality and power of description. It has been said of him that while you may agree or disagree, you cannot resist the lure of his simple, lucid, nervous style. The volumes of the collected works which are being edited and arranged by the author himself will contain "Ashes of the Beacon," "The Land Beyond the Blow," and "Bits of Autobiography"; Volume II, the famous short stories, "In the Midst of Life"; Volume III, his marvel stories, dealing with the occult, hypnotism, cowardice, bravery, dreams, haunted houses, and strange forms of death, "Can Such Things Be?"; Volume IV, his poems, "Shapes of Clay"; Volume V, his satires in verse,—brilliant, keen, searching,—"Black Beetles in Amber"; Volume VI, that exquisite mediæval romance, "The Monk and the Hangman's Daughter," a novel, "Fantastic Fables," and "On With the Dance"; Volume VII, "The Devil's Dictionary" and "Epigrams"; Volume VIII, "Negligible Tales" and "Kings of Beasts," the latter being the well-known "Little Johnny" stories; Volume IX, "Essays" on things political, poetical, practical, romantic and general; and Volume X, "Miscellaneous,"—pieces "too lawless and dissimilar for classification."

¹The Collected Works of Ambrose Bierce. Vols. VI, VII, VIII, IX, and X. Neale Publishing Company, 1918 pp. \$25 per set.



BLÜCHER

(From an old English print)

¹Autobiographic Memoirs. 2 vols. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan. 762 pp. \$7.50.

²Blücher and the Uprising of Prussia against Napoleon. By Ernest F. Henderson. Putnams. 347 pp., ill. \$1.50.

The distinction about Dr. Arthur C. McGiffert's "Life of Martin Luther"¹ is that its treatment is as bold, vigorous, and masterful as the man of whom it treats. Dr. McGiffert is one of the new generation of college men whose interest in the Bible lies more in the fact of its intellectual and ethical greatness than in its emotional appeal. His biography of Luther, the most tremendous figure in the intellectual world of the sixteenth century, has done a great deal toward promoting an interest in the ethical and mental character of the Holy Scriptures. Dr. McGiffert puts the main emphasis of his work on the extraordinary human interest in Luther's life and career. Although this redoubtable German was built on no ordinary scale, still "he was very human, this hero of ours, fiery-tempered, passionate, imperious, warm-hearted . . . full of contradictions, with the frankness and carelessness of genius." Like Cromwell or Napoleon in his masterful will, "he was like our own Lincoln in his human sympathy, his simplicity of character and his transparent honesty." Luther's place in the history of human development "is secure . . . He dominated more than half the Western world, and the whole of it is changed because he lived."

In a public speech on literary topics, some years ago, the Hon. Augustine Birrell, then President of the Board of Education in England, asked "who, then, is to tackle Mr. G. Bernard Shaw, and assign to him his proper place in the providential order of



LUTHER'S WIFE, KATHARINE VON BORA, IN 1526
(From the painting by Lucas Cranach, used as a frontispiece to Dr. McGiffert's "Life of Martin Luther")



"G. B. S." AND HIS BIOGRAPHER, DR. ARCHIBALD HENDERSON

the world?" Then and there Dr. Archibald Henderson made up his mind to "tackle the job." Later, however, he "repented him, since such a task is impossible while Shaw lives to belie it."

He decided to write instead an authoritative biography,² including critical comment on Shaw's works, life, art, and philosophy. The result, which we are informed on the title page, is the first authorized work, now appears spread over 523 pages and fully illustrated. In the preparation of this work, Mr. Shaw assisted the author in various ways. The subject himself declares that his biographer has done extraordinarily well. It contains certain errors, he admits, but hastens to add "its publication has left my friendly relations with the author quite unaltered." Dr. Henderson is one of the faculty of the University of North Carolina. He is an essayist and critic on literary topics of reputation in the United States and Europe.

Other volumes of biography and reminiscence published during the season, which are noteworthy, are: "Life and Memoirs of John Churton Collins," by L. C. Collins (John Lane); "The Story-Life of Washington," 2 vols., by Wayne Whipple (John C. Winston Co.); "The Life of Napoleon," by Arthur Hassell (Little, Brown & Co.); "Recollections Grave and Gay," by Mrs. Burton Harrison (Scribners); "Friedrich Nietzsche, the Dionysian Spirit of the Age," by A. R. Orage (McClurg); "Robert Louis Stevenson," by Isobel Strong (Scribners); "Life of Robert Louis Stevenson," by Graham Balfour (Scribners); "Mary Stuart," by Una Birch (Funk & Wagnalls); "Recollections of a Parisian," edited by A. Branche and L. Dagoury (Putnam's).

¹Martin Luther: the Man and His Work. By Arthur Cushman McGiffert. Century Company. 397 pp., ill. \$3.

²George Bernard Shaw: His Life and Works. By Archibald Henderson. Stewart & Kidd. 524 pp., ill. \$5.

HOLIDAY BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS

THE "Poems" of Henry van Dyke¹ embrace those earlier verses written when he had planned his life to be one of devotion to poesy alone, and those occasional verses that have come from his pen from time to time out of a life of many activities. He offers the collections as "all that I have been permitted to write as yet of the poetry that has come to me." Of our best English poems it is said that not more than five are distinctly religious, but one could scarcely discover five of Dr. van Dyke's that are not essentially religious, the ethical and religious elements everywhere supplanting the poesy that is born of mere sensuous emotion. The great lesson that we may only find righteousness through helpful service is taught in the "Toiling of Felix." The sonnets, "The Three Best Things" and "The Flute"—the last freely rendered from the French of August Anbellier, and the tributes to Shelley and Browning are exquisite examples of poesy. Dr. van Dyke's verse ministers to human life; it gives faith, hope, and comfort to lighten the common way, the common task.

With the poems of Dr. van Dyke comes a beautiful parable story, "The Mansion,"² which compares the earthly mansion of a wealthy man to the eternal mansion he has builded for himself in the immortal city. By a miracle he is transported there on Christmas Eve, and finds that he has built only a hovel, a hut of mud and scraps. When he inquires the reason why his life of charity and philanthropy has not builded a fairer dwelling, he is told that his good deeds have all been done with the hope of earthly reward. There are attractive illustrations by Elizabeth Shippen Green.

The Cavalier poets took life seriously and verse lightly. Their words are less for the intellect than for the heart, but the simplicity and beauty of their song must remain a joy forever. Herbert, Lovelace, Herrick, Cowley, Vaughan, Crashaw, Norwell and others of the merry crew have been gathered together into a volume entitled, "The Cavalier Poets."³ The work is presented by Mr. Carl Holiday, acting head of the department of English Literature in Vanderbilt University. His sketches of the lives of those gay-hearted men are of exceeding merit and enlivened by anecdote and apt quotation. Lovelace and Herrick have remained perhaps the most popular of these old favorites. Their song was of the earth earthy, but the vigor and manliness of their art condone the sensuousness of their muse. We owe much to these amorous conceits and garlands of wit, for they brought about the renaissance of the lost art of natural song and molded the form of English verse for centuries to come.

Along with the new editions of favorite poets, Charles Scribner's Sons issue a volume containing four lectures on the early literary career of Robert Browning,⁴ by Thomas R. Lounsbury, Professor of English in Yale University. They take into con-

sideration the period of Browning's life from the publication of his first poem in 1833 to his marriage and departure for Italy in 1846 and are entitled "Pauline and Paracelsus," "Strafford and Sordello," the later two, "Bells" and "Pomegranates." Mr. Lounsbury's estimate of Browning is based on the recent assumption that Browning was not a "Browningite" who found pleasure in wilful obscurity, but a lover of strong, virile expression that often mystified his readers by the rapidity of its movement and curious use of ordinary words. This volume presents a careful picture of the poet's life, thus giving many clues whereby to tread the jungle of his lawless diction. It is Mr. Lounsbury's opinion that when "Sordello" and the "Ring and the Book" have been long forgotten, we shall remember the "Pied Piper" and "Hervé Riel," that the test of poesy is always simplicity; a poem lives because it is easily understood.

In serious vein is "Democracy and Poetry"⁵ recently published by Professor Francis Gummere of Haverford College. His essay traces the rise of Democracy and analyzes the effect of this reaction upon the works of Rousseau and the poetry of Southey and Coleridge. An entire chapter is devoted to Whitman and Taine, the two widely differing representatives of Democracy and reaction, and another follows the history of the communal origin of poetry and its social and socialistic manifestations. Mr. Gummere thinks Whitman a great soul, but emphatically not a great poet, because of his inability to clothe his thought in the artistic restraint of poetic form. As Whitman failed, even so must Democracy fail, unless it submits to a certain restraint from the community. But as both democracy and poetry are immortal, we need not mourn over their seeming decline in our present generation; they will return as they have from time immemorial to light the way to things eternal. Galsworthy has sounded the high note of democracy in romance; now we await the poet of Democracy. This essay is an exceedingly interesting and valuable contribution to literary criticism.

In very attractive, illustrated form comes a reprint of Charles Lamb's "Essays of Elia."⁶ These whimsical compositions are to be read quietly and with a child-like spirit, if we would not lose their fanciful and delicate charm. They remain, despite the success of less worthy rivals, the ideal essays written in the English tongue. We find within their pages no obscurities of thought nor of expression. Lamb warns us in "All Fools' Day" not to "wrest my words beyond their fair construction." An hour with Lamb is a draught of peace, like to the peace of quiet English fields and hedgerows. There are full-page illustrations in color, the frontispiece a drawing of "Quaker Meeting," with the familiar quotation, "How reverend is the view of these hushed heads."

There is a quaint, homely, "common sensible" philosophy, with many touches of humor, in Walter

¹Poems. By Henry van Dyke. Scribners. 479 pp. \$2.
²The Mansion. By Henry van Dyke. Harper Bros. 60 pp. 50 cents.

³The Cavalier Poets. By Carl Holiday. Neale Publishing Co. 318 pp. \$2.50.

⁴The Literary Career of Robert Browning. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 201 pp. \$1.20.

⁵Democracy and Poetry. By Francis B. Gummere. Houghton Mifflin Co. 328 pp. \$1.50.

⁶Essays of Elia. By Charles Lamb. Little, Brown & Co. 245 pp. \$1.25.

A. Dyer's book, "The Richer Life,"¹ which is one of the holiday books from Doubleday, Page. In the meaning of the author, the "richer life" is that higher aim, "that better thing which you and I and the rest of us have stowed away in our vest pockets, under the delusion that some day, when we turn a certain bend in Prosperity Avenue, we shall draw it forth and look to it exclusively, and give up mere money-making. Of course, as you and I know, but won't admit, the bend in the road moves as we move, because we're walking in a vicious circle."

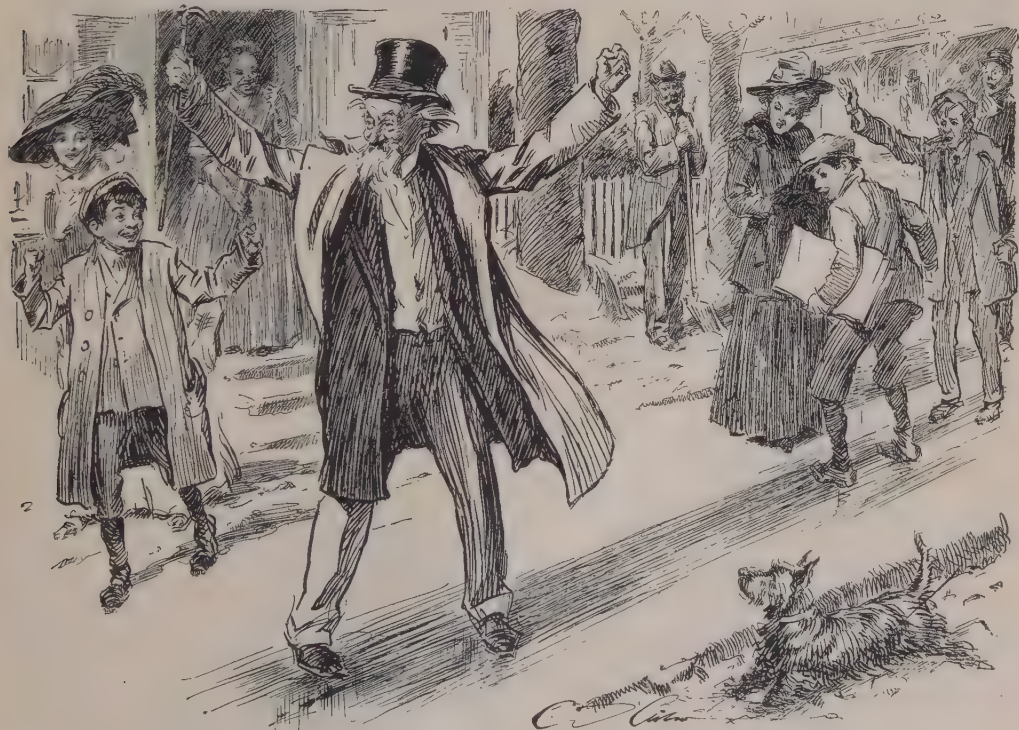
The admitted decline in interest manifested by the world's laboring classes in the church, whatever its denomination, and the acknowledged coming into its own of industrial democracy all over the world, has suggested to Mr. Bouck White, head resident of Trinity House, New York, the retelling of the Christ story in terms of the modern social struggle. Mr. White has endeavored to make Jesus the most interesting person in history. In his book, "The Call of the Carpenter,"² he emphasizes and illuminates the humaneness and suffering of the man, of the workman that "needeth not to be ashamed." In His day in Palestine, Jesus was the renovator of the social edifice. To-day, as Mr. White points out, if we will let Him, He may renovate also the false, unlovely, and cruel social edifice

which the world has erected. "The Call of the Carpenter" is an excellent Christmas season book.

We are in receipt also of the following attractive illustrated holiday books: "The Beauties of Nature," by Sir John Lubbock (H. M. Caldwell Co.); "Best English Tales," edited by Adam L. Gowans, and "Best English and Scottish Ballads," edited by Edward A. Bryant (Crowell); "Animal Secrets Told," by Harry C. Brearley (Stokes); "The Fall of the Year," by Dallas L. Sharp (Houghton Mifflin); "The Twelfth Christmas," by Marjorie B. Cooke (Chicago: Forbes & Co.); "Of Distinguished Animals," by H. Perry Robinson (Lippincott); "The Joy of Gardens," by Lena May McCauley (Rand, McNally & Co.); "Ben King's Southland Melodies" (Chicago: Forbes & Co.); "Chosen Days in Scotland," by Josephine H. Short (Crowell); "Loves of the Poets," by Richard Le Gallienne (Baker & Taylor Co.); "The Land and the Book" (new edition), by William M. Thompson (Harpers); "The Virginian," by Owen Wister (Macmillan); "Other People," a collection of drawings by Charles Dana Gibson (Scribners); "The Gift of the Wise Men," by O. Henry (Doubleday, Page); "The Boy Who Bought Christmas," by Alice Morgan (Doubleday, Page); "For Lovers and Others," by James Terry White (Stokes); "When Knights Were Bold," by Eva March Tappan (Houghton Mifflin); "Plain-Towns of Italy," by Edgerton R. Williams (Houghton Mifflin); "Bashful Ballads," by Burges Johnson (Harpers).

¹The Richer Life. By Walter A. Dyer. Doubleday, Page. 229 pp., illustrated chapter heads \$1.

²The Call of the Carpenter. By Bouck White. Doubleday, Page. 355 pp. \$1.20.



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AS YOUNG AS EVER HE WAS

(Illustration from Charles Dana Gibson's new collection of drawings, "Other People")



From "The Goblin Gobblers"

THE SEASON'S BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

*"Books for children and early youth have become literature, pictures for their illustrations have become art."*¹



From "A Child's History of England"

THE "juveniles" for this year are of the very highest order. Think of it—two new books by recipients of the Nobel Prize: Kipling and Lagerlöf!

We must of course consider "A Child's History of England," by Rudyard Kipling and C. R. L. Fletcher (Doubleday, Page), as the leading juvenile of the season. No dry-as-dust chronology here, but vivid pen pictures of the building up of the British Empire, of

which Kipling has always been no overmodest prophet. How true the history may be? Well, "that's another story!" We elders, who have been brought up on Dickens' "Child's History of England," will not begrudge the young folk this new history by their generation's master of *fiction*.

Then there is a beautiful new fairy story, which we might rather call an animal story, by Selma Lagerlöf, "Further Adventures of Nils," the boy who was turned into a pigmy, called Thumbietot, and learned the language of the animals and had fellowship with them (Doubleday, Page). This is a masterpiece of mellifluous simplicity. Miss Lagerlöf's writing is as clear as a Bible narrative.

Anatole France, like Miss Lagerlöf, is the possessor of a perfect style, and Mrs. John Lane's translation of his "Honey-Bee," illustrated by Florence Lundburg (Lane), makes musical reading, but the story itself hasn't its root in Mother Earth, as has "Further Adventures of Nils."

USEFUL BOOKS

And the useful books, they, too, "have become literature."

Mr. Francis A. Collins' "The Second Boy's Book of Model Aeroplanes" (Century) reads like

¹ From Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's introduction to "The Heart of Youth, Poems Gay and Grave for Young People," edited by Jeannette L. Gilder (Sturgis & Walton).



From "The Further Adventures of Nils"

the report of an expert correspondent of a modern daily, describing with ultra-picturesqueness some event in the day's news. He quite convinces you that aeroplane building is both the finest sport and the finest mechanical training that a boy can have.

"Handicraft for Handy Boys," by A. Neely Hall (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), is a companion volume to last year's "The Boy Craftsman," and contains hundreds of illustrations and directions for building both useful and pastime novelties. Some thirty pages, for example, are devoted to model aeroplanes.

Another book of the same character is Dan Beard's "Boat-Building and Boating" (Scribners). Mr. Beard's interest in the Boy Scouts guarantees that he is in sympathy with out-of-door life, and the explicit directions he gives indicate that the author has put in practice his thorough diagrams.

Two valuable books "Historic Inventions," by Rupert S. Holland (Jacobs), and "Stories of Useful Inventions,"

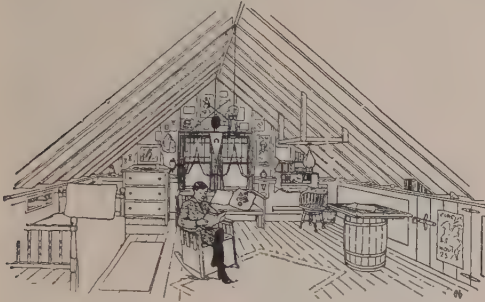


From "Honey-Bee"

by S. E. Forman (Century), while they do not give directions for mechanical construction, tell of the accomplishments of the great inventors of the past, in such a manner as to fire the ambition of any mechanically inclined boy.

PICTURE BOOKS

And such picture books! Dulac, M. Ethelreda Gray, and Cecil Aldin, and a host of others, prove



From "Handicraft for Handy Boys"

that Mrs. Burnett is right in saying that picture-book illustrations "have become art."

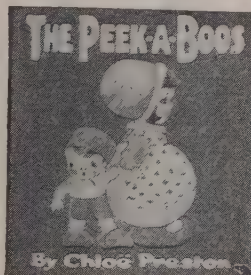
"The Treasure Book of Children's Verse" is a "red-letter" volume of three hundred and thirty-five pages, arranged by Mabel and Lilian Quiller-Couch (Doran). The illustrations in color by M. Ethelreda Gray, marvelously reproduced, give the



From "The Treasure Book of Children's Verse"

veritable effect of water-color drawings. The book of Baby Beasts," by E. J. Detmold (Doran), contains some twenty pictures printed in delicate tints. The same publishers issue "Rough and Tumble," by Cecil Aldin, a series of humorous cartoons of the adventures of two puppy-dogs, expressive to the highest degree. "The Peek-a-Boos," by Chloë Preston (Doran), has a most attractive cover, delicately tinted and embossed on tawny rough paper.

The imprint of the Rand-McNally Company appears on six large-paged volumes, where there is evidence of the art editor having taken pains to get the best results possible in medium-priced books. The colored illustrations, by Katharine Merrill, placed right in the text (which is by Elie W. Peattie) in "Edda and the Oak," are effective; as are the black and whites by Lucy Fitch Perkins (where the background has been judiciously cut away from the half-tones), in "The Enchanted Peacock," by Julia Brown.



Cover design of "The Peek-a-Boos"

There are also colored illustrations here in pleasant tones. Again in "Jackieboy in Rainbowland," by William L. Hill, the illustrations, in color, by Fanny Y. Cory, have been printed some on book paper and some on coated paper, and experiments tried in their tints with successful results. In "The Garden of Heart's Delight," by Ada M. Huntington, the colored pictures by Mrs. Maginel Wright Enright, have a Japanese effect that is highly decorative. "Other Rhymes for Little Readers," by Wilhelmina Seegmiller, has capital pictures by Ruth Mary Hallock. The illustrations, by Hope Dunlap, for Olive McCabe's "The Rose Fairies," are not very effective as color prints, but they are well composed and graphic.



From "The Rose Fairies"

"The Teddy Bearoplane," by May Byron (Doran), is a happy title. The book is well printed, and the text, in verse, is snappy. The drawings by J. R. Sinclair are effective, though a bit overcolored.

In "The Goblin Gobblers" the verses are by J. H. Lockyer, and the illustrations by Chas. E. Crombie (Warne). Mr. Crombie's "Gobblers" have made a great hit in England, and he certainly does draw an expansive smile with a simplicity that is the quintessence of art.



From "Ye Three Blind Mice"

"Complete Version of Ye Three Blind Mice," by John W. Ivimey, illustrated by Walton Corbould (Warne), is another lively book.

"The Surprise Book, Adventures of Jack and Betty," by Clara Andrew Williams, illustrated by George Alfred Williams (Stokes), contains color prints opposite every page of letterpress, and in the letterpress is a diagram of a door, a knothole, or an opening, for the children to cut out, and when they have done so, the opening reveals some object on the opposite page.

"The Children's Book of Christmas" (Macmillan) is a thick quarto that contains many new selections made by J. C. Dier, mostly in prose, about Christmas, that we fancy are new to the books of compilation. There are black-and-white and color prints after Botticelli and other great artists.

Lucy Fitch Perkins has illustrated with her pencil (or was it charcoal?) her own story, "The Dutch Twins" (Houghton, Mifflin). The letterpress and drawings are printed together, with an ink that is not quite black, giving the drawings a



From "The Dutch Twins"

ing," "touching," "hearing," and "seeing." It is superior to the average book of its kind.

For very little ones a small book, but with plenty of illustrations, is "The Cat's Tea Party," by Laure Claire Foucher, illustrated by Margaret E. Grainger (Moffat, Yard).

TWICE-TOLD TALES AND NEW EDITIONS

A book to be highly recommended is "Half a Hundred Hero Tales," a collection of classic stories, some by the editor, Francis Storr, the rest from Hawthorne, Kingsley, and others (Holt).

Mr. and Mrs. William Platt's "Stories of the Scottish Border" (Crowell) contains numerous historic legends in a single volume; while Captain Charles Young tells of a single hero in "Harald, First of the Vikings," illustrated by Gertrude Demain Hammond, R.I. (Crowell), and "A Chevalier of Old France," by John Harrington Cox (Little, Brown), contains, for the most part, the tale of Roland, but introduces Charlemagne as well. Other Twice-Told Tales are: "Robin Hood," edited by Clifton Johnson (Baker & Taylor), and "The Story of the Crusades," by E. M. Wilmot-Buxton, with sixteen illustrations by M. Meredith Williams (Crowell).

Foremost among the reprints is "Stories from Hans Andersen," with superb illustrations in tints by Edmund Dulac, a worthy disciple of Rackham (Doran).

Another gem of the fairy-tale reprints is "Perrault's Fairy Tales," newly translated by S. R. Littlewood (Estes). It is a beautiful piece of typography, from the De La More Press, London, light and easy to hold in the hand, with most delicate illustrations in color by Honor C. Appleton.

When we turn to a reprint that Frederick Warne & Co. have issued this year of "The Pied Piper of Hamelin," with illustrations by Kate Greenaway (that has been out of print for twenty years), we see immediately what it is that makes certain illustrations of permanent value. Kate Greenaway's drawings have taste and decorative instinct behind them. There is nothing about the pictures that makes them out of date. They are as fresh to-day as they were two decades ago. There is a grace in every line, a rhythm in every composition.

Some superb "New Edition" books that will never lose their value, because they are true literature, are:

"The Shadowless Man," by Adelbert Von Chamisso, translated by Sir John Bowring and illustrated by Gordon Browne (Warne); "Tom

soft gray effect, so that they have a very pleasing autographic sketchbook aspect.

"The Five Senses," edited by Angela M. Keyes, illustrated in color by Jessie Wilcox Smith (Moffat, Yard), is a "Reader" with selections from the best authors, dealing with "tasting," "smelling," "touching," "hearing," and "seeing." It is superior to the average book of its kind.

The perennial favorite "Little Lord Fauntleroy" appears in a new edition with pictures in color by its original illustrator, Reginald Birch (Scribners).

And "Alice in Wonderland," with new illustrations, some in color, by George Soper, comes from the Baker & Taylor Co., while Duffield have issued a new edition of Edward Lear's "Nonsense Book," with an introduction by Lord Cromer, containing pictures and text not hitherto published.

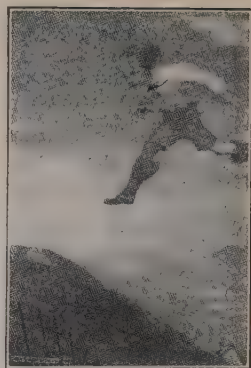
FAIRY TALES

In "The One-Footed Fairy and Other Stories," by Alice Brown (Houghton, Mifflin), there are a few clever conceits that will amuse the little ones.

L. Frank Baum, author of "The Wizard of Oz," writes this year of "The Sea Fairies" (Reilly & Britton). The illustrations are by John R. Neill.

Another extravaganza book of English origin is "The Witch's Kitchen," by Gerald Young (Crowell). The author writes, with an extremely easy style, of two children, who, *à la* Peter Pan, sail out of the window on broomsticks, but the episodes that follow are not particularly original. The illustrations are by Willy Pogany, one of the cleverest of European illustrators, but we do not think in this case that he has done his best.

The Crowell Company deserve much credit for publishing "The Unmannerly Tiger and Other



From "Perrault's Fairy Tales"



From "The Five Senses"



From "The Pied Piper of Hamelin"



From "At the Back of the North Wind"

Korean Tales," by such an authority on things Eastern as William Elliot Griffis.

Anna Alice Chapin has made an enchanting fairy tale of Humperdink's opera, "Königskinder" (The Royal Children) (Harper's).

ANIMAL BOOKS

It is pleasant to note that many of the animal books are from the pens of naturalists who are authorities in their field.

"A Book of Nimble Beasts" (Estes) has illustrations from over two hundred photographs

by the author, Douglas English (Fellow and Medalist of the Royal Photographic Society), that have actual scientific value; it makes a splendid present for the young.

A large number of short tales are crowded into "Little Animal Stories," compiled by Frances Weld Danielson (Pilgrim Press).

"Mother West Wind's Children," by Thornton W. Burgess (Little, Brown), is perhaps a fairy tale rather than a "Nature book."

"Bird Stories from Burroughs," sketches of bird life taken from the works of John Burroughs (Houghton, Mifflin), contains excellent illustrations in color and black and white, by Louis Agassiz Fuertes. The authority of the author is unimpeachable.

HOME AND SCHOOL STORIES

Some of our adult readers will remember Mrs. Whitney's "William Henry Letters," that appeared in "Our Young Folks" over a quarter of a century ago, the illustrations by "William Henry" himself. The humor of them was so fine that we can hardly expect their equal, but Charlotte Curtis Smith, in writing "Bob Knight's Diary on a Farm" (Dutton), and having it illustrated by sketches from "Bob"—of the same naive graffiti-like crudeness as "William Henry's" drawings—has produced a refreshing book that has a great deal in it about the



From "The Sea Fairies"

country, about snakes, and bugs, and crops, and animals, that will not only amuse youthful readers, but should instil in them a genuine liking for things rural.

Miss Nina Rhoades' "Victorine's Book" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard) makes wholesome reading for young folks from ten to fifteen years of age.

"The Admiral's Little Secretary," by Elizabeth Lincoln Gould (Penn), tells of Nancy's life in the city. Last year it was "Glenloch Girls Abroad"; this year "The Glenloch Girls' Club," by Grace M. Remick (Penn), tells a good story of the doings of the club in its home town. "Honey Sweet," by Edna H. L. Turnip (Macmillan), is for very young children.

As usual, a number of books tell of life at school in a manner more or less familiar to the reader of juveniles, but even in these somewhat tame stories the writers frequently draw the picture with a sureness of touch that

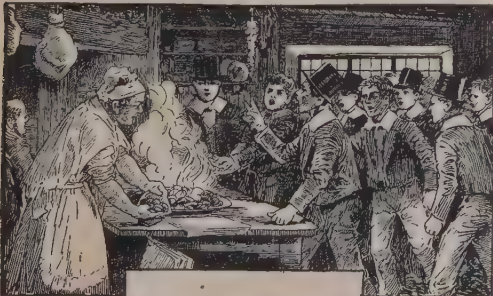
would not have shamed Dickens or Thackeray. For example, in "A Sophomore Co-Ed," by Alice Louise Lee (Penn), the interview that Winifred Lowe has with the editor, Mr. Dansbury, is crisp and dramatic in its reporting.

Other well-written stories for girls are: "Patty's Motor Car" (Dodd, Mead), written in Carolyn Wells' sparkling style. "Just Patty," by Jean Webster (Century), is sure to be a prime favorite, as will be "The Missing Pearls," by Emilie Benson Knipe and Alden Arthur Knipe (Harper's).

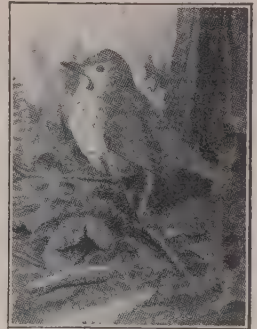
In "A Little Princess of the Patio," by Aileen



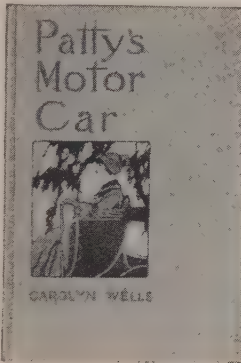
From "The Unmannerly Tiger"



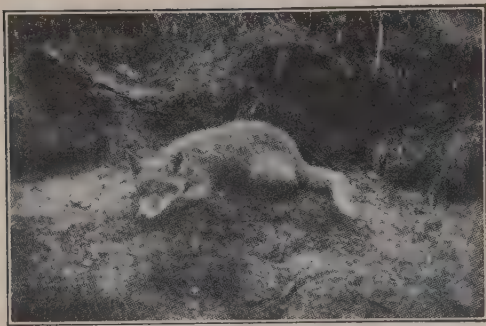
From "Tom Brown's School Days"



From "Bird Stories from Burroughs"



Cover Design of "Patty's Motor Car"



From "A Book of Nimble Beasts"

Cleveland Higgins (Penn). Jean Kingsley spends a winter in Mexico.

Lack of space prevents our giving full credit to Ernest Thompson Seton's "Rolf in the Woods" (Doubleday, Page); "Bob Dashaway, Privateersman," by Cyrus Townsend Brady (Dodd, Mead); "Clif Stirling, Behind the Line," by Gilbert Patten (David McKay); "The Oak Street Boys' Club," by Warren L. Eldred (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard); "Young Crusoes of the Sky," by F. Lovell Coombs (Century); "The Crooked Trail," by Lewis B. Miller (Estes); "Boy Scouts in the Maine Woods," by James Otis (Crowell); "The Likable Chap," by Henry McHarg Davenport (Sturgis & Walton); "Tom Strong's Washington Scout," by Alfred Bishop Mason (Holt); "Boy Scouts' Patrol," by Ralph Victor (Chatterton); "Tommy's Money," by John R. Coryell (Harper's); "The Pecks in Camp," by A. T. Dudley

(Lothrop, Lee & Shepard); "The School Team on the Diamond," by John Prescott Earl (Penn); "The Rambler Club Among the Lumber Jacks," by W. C. Sheppard (Penn); "The Rambler Club on Circle T Ranch," by W. C. Sheppard (Penn); "Roger Paulding, Apprentice Seaman," by Edward L. Beach (Penn); "The Camp on Indian Island," by James Otis (Penn); "Old Ben," by James Otis (Harper's); "What Happened at Olenberg," by Clifford Howard (Reilly & Britton); "The Believing Years," by Edmund L. Pearson (Macmillan); "The Moon God's Secret," by Arch Webb (Caldwell); "The Aeroplane at Silver Fox Farm," by James Otis (Crowell); "Yellow Star," by Elaine Goodale Eastman (Little, Brown); "Betty Wales Decides," by Margaret Warde (Penn); "Felicia's Folks," by Elizabeth Lincoln Gould (Penn); "The Six Little Pennycrackers," by Sophie Swett (Estes); "Rosemary for Remembrance," by Helen Sherman Griffith (Penn); "Strawberry Acres," by Grace S. Richmond (Doubleday, Page); "The Treasure Babies," by Maria Thompson Daviess (Bobbs-Merrill); "Dorothy's Trump," by Evelyn Raymond (Chatterton); "Carey of St. Ursula's," by Jane Brewster Reid (Baker & Taylor); "Peggy Stewart," by Gabrielle E. Jackson (Macmillan); "Happy Days at Hillside," by Emily Hewitt Morse (Dutton); "Marjorie's Schooldays," by Alice Turner Curtis (Penn); "Four Gordons," by Edna A. Brown (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard); "Grandpa's Little Girls and Miss Abitha," by Alice Turner Curtis (Penn); "Letty's New Home," by Helen Sherman Griffith (Penn); "A Dear Little Girl's Summer Holidays," by Amy E. Blanchard (Jacobs); "Happy Children," by Ella Farman Pratt (Crowell).

OTHER "JUVENILES" OF THE SEASON

Live Dolls in Fairyland. By Josephine Scribner Gates. Bobbs-Merrill.

An Hour with the Fairies. Arranged by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith. Doubleday, Page & Co.

The Runaway Equator. By Lilian Bell. Stokes.

The City that Never was Reached. By Jay T. Stocking. Pilgrim Press.

The Children's Shakespeare. Retold by Alice Spencer Hoffman. Dutton.

The Rose and the Ring. By W. M. Thackeray. Crowell.

The Story of Bayard. By Christopher Hare. Dutton.

Pinocchio, the Story of a Puppet. By C. Col-lodi. Dutton.

The Children of the New Forest. By Captain Marryat. Holt.

Stories from the New Testament for Children. By Elsa Barker. Duffield.

The American History Story-Book. By Blaisdell and Ball. Little, Brown & Co.

The Story of France. By Mary Macgregor. Stokes.

The Boy's Story of Zebulon M. Pike. Edited by M. G. Humphreys. Scribner's.

Marta in Holland. By Etta Blaisdell McDonald and Julia Dalrymple. Little, Brown & Co.

California the Golden. By Rockwell D. Hunt. Silver, Burdett.

The Boy's Life of Edison. By William H. Meadowcroft. Harper's.

Mother Goose Rhymes. Edited by Clifton Johnson. Baker & Taylor.

A Mother Goose Reader. By Charles W. Michens and Louise Robinson. Silver, Burdett.

The Truth about Old King Cole. By C. F. Hill. Warne.

The Jaunts of Junior. Pictures by Arthur B. Phelan, verses by Lillian B. Hunt. Harper's.

In Fableland. By Emma Serl. Silver, Burdett.

Go to Sleep. By Stella George Stern Perry. Stokes.

A Toy Party. By J. Bodger. Warne.

Sylvia's Travels. By Constance Armfield. Dutton.

Tiny Hare and His Friends. By A. L. Sykes. Little, Brown & Co.

Little Animal Stories. Compiled by Frances Weld Danielson. Pilgrim Press.

Master Frisky's Heroism. By Clarence Hawkes. Jacobs.

Kittens and Cats. By Eulalie Osgood Grover. Houghton Mifflin.

Woody Neighbors of Tan and Teckle. By Charles Lee Bryson. Revell.

Mocco, an Indian Boy. By S. M. Barrett. Duffield.

The Indian Book. By William John Hopkins. Doran.

